Organisational Fit and Misfit: An Empirical Study of Similartities and Differences

Thesis

Organisational Fit and Misfit:

An Empirical Study of Similarities and Differences

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Table of Contents

Items not bound with this thesis:

A confidential addendum containing the research participants' full causal maps which is available only to the examiners

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Appendices

Abstract

This thesis focuses on employees' experiences of fit and misfit at work. This falls within the person-environment fit (PE fit) literature which is based on principles founded in interactional psychology that when a person fits the environment that they are in, positive outcomes, such as job satisfaction, will result. Despite a wealth of empirical studies in the PE fit field studying various aspects of individuals' fit with their work environment, there are significant gaps in knowledge and understanding. One of these is that little research has investigated how employees experience fit and misfit. A second gap is that little is known about misfit and whether this is the opposite to fit, an absence of fit or a separate categorical state. The research focused on these gaps in the literature and took a qualitative, exploratory approach to gain in-depth understanding of the factors affecting individuals' fit in organisations.

Causal mapping techniques were used to allow the study's participants to express their perceptions without being prompted to speak about specific topics. The resulting data were coded using measures from the PE fit literature to explore whether the extant measures adequately captured people's experiences and also to assess whether there were differences between fit and misfit. The research found that the extant PE fit measures explained participants' experiences of fit and misfit well but that as these are focused on factors within the organisational environment, they miss external factors such as people's links with their communities. It seems that the majority of individuals experience misfit to some extent but that overwhelming misfit perceptions can be triggered by a change in the organisation. Misfit and fit are shown to differ, most profoundly in that whereas fit is a positive experience, misfit is negative and a state to be avoided.

Chapter 1: Introduction

What makes some people feel that they fit in well at work whilst other people feel like misfits? The notion that some people fit well whereas others feel that they misfit is familiar to most people who have worked for any length of time. Sometimes it is easy to fit in whereas at other times, people can feel like 'square pegs in round holes'. The study reported in this thesis set out to investigate employees' fit and misfit perceptions, to compare and contrast these and, in doing so, to assess the similarities and differences between fit and misfit.

The study of how people fit at work has arisen out of the question of why people behave in the ways that they do. Individuals' personality traits, genetic make-up, motivation and cognition are known to be important factors in shaping behaviour (Krahé, 1992) but the situation or environment that they are in also has an influence (Mischel, 1968). Interactional psychology suggests that it is the interaction of the individual with the environment that better explains behaviour than either in isolation (Schneider, 1987a) and out of this field, person-environment fit (PE fit) has emerged. PE fit theories posit that when individuals and organisations fit to a high degree, positive outcomes such as job satisfaction and commitment will result (Pervin, 1968). Whereas fit has been linked to positive outcomes, misfit has been shown to cause stress (Edwards & Cooper, 1990) and Schneider (1987b) additionally suggested that misfits leave organisations, thus having not only implications for the individual, but also a cost for the organisation.

Despite there being many empirical studies of PE fit, there is no clear consensus on the conceptualization of fit, its measurement and its boundaries (Harrison, 2007). Even less is known about misfit and although it tends to be conceptualized as a lack or absence of fit (Edwards, 2008), it has been suggested that fit and misfit are not polar opposites, but categorical states (Billsberry, Van Meurs, Coldwell, & Marsh, 2006). Further, little is

known about how people experience fit and misfit (Piasentin & Chapman, 2007), and whether people necessarily experience misfit negatively (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). In sum, "the area of misfit is wide open to researchers" (Wheeler, Coleman-Gallagher, Brouer, & Sablynski, 2007).

This study sought to address these gaps, focusing on how employees experience fit and misfit and to assess the differences between them. The extent to which the extant terms in the literature explained fit and misfit was assessed as was the question of whether fit and misfit are polar opposites. The research was conducted by means of an exploratory, qualitative study. In-depth interviews and causal mapping were used as it allowed "respondents to surface tacitly held thought processes in an explicit manner" (Billsberry, Ambrosini, Marsh, Moss-Jones, & Van Meurs, 2005, p. 560) without prompting the participants with pre-conceived ideas of what it means to fit and misfit. The causal map data were coded using PE fit measures and, because it was found that participants spoke about aspects of their lives outside of work, demographic (Jackson & Chung, 2008; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992) and job embeddedness measures (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001) were also added to the coding schedule.

The content and the structure of the causal maps were analysed in a series of steps to assess whether there were similarities and differences between the factors cited in relation to fit and misfit, whether the extant PE fit measures explained fit and whether fit and misfit were polar opposites. It was found that there were broad similarities, for example in that the PE fit dimensions explained both the fit and misfit data equally well, but there were also differences, perhaps the most pronounced of which was that fit tended to be positively perceived whereas misfit was shown to be a negative experience for the participants. Although the PE fit dimensions were used to code the majority of the data, participants often also mentioned aspects of their lives outside of work, suggesting that fit and misfit may be subject to a wider array of factors than the PE fit dimensions suggest. The different PE fit dimensions and other factors were frequently linked as influencing

each other and consequently there may be more interplay between the fit dimensions than is suggested by the PE fit literature (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007). No clear conclusion was reached as to whether fit and misfit were two ends of a spectrum or separate, categorical states. Participants generally considered themselves to fit with some aspects of the working environment and misfit with others, with either fit or misfit dominating. This suggested that for many people, they may not wholly fit or completely misfit. However, misfit was shown to be 'triggered' (Wheeler, Buckley, Halbesleben, Brouer, & Ferris, 2005) by changes at work, an example of which was a manager leaving and a new manager starting work, which caused individuals to re-assess their fit and move from perceiving that they fitted at work to misfitting.

These findings have implications for the literature but also for management practice. The outcomes of PE fit were not the focus of this study, yet if misfit is negative and triggered by changes at work, then it is important for managers to recognise misfit in order to avoid its potential consequences such as stress and turnover, both of which have a negative effect, not only on the employee, but also on the organisation and the misfits' co-workers. The study's findings also have implications for the PE fit literature and future research. The use of qualitative methods allowed for the exploration of all dimensions of PE fit and misfit, rather than focusing on one aspect of fit in isolation. This has pinpointed areas for future research, for example, whether external factors impact on fit perceptions and whether employees perceive the dimensions of PE fit to influence each other. However, it appears that further research into misfit is also warranted, to assess more widely whether trigger events play a role and whether people who perceive that they misfit leave organisations (Schneider, 1987b).

Chapter 2: Literature Review I

The Person and the Situation

"*Human behavior is like a very complex jigsaw puzzle*" (Pervin, 1980, p. 550)

2.1 Introduction

This study focuses on individuals' fit and misfit in organisations which falls within the person-environment fit (PE fit) literature. PE fit is of interest because there is substantial research to suggest that it is the interaction of the individual and their environment that affects people's behaviour (see Furnham, 1994; Krahé, 1992; Pervin, 1989). As such, not only is the way that people feel and behave dependent on both their personal characteristics and the environment that they are in, but specifically, how compatible the person is with a particular environment is said to affect behaviour. In organisations therefore, high compatibility, or a close fit between the person and their organisational environment, is linked with positive affective outcomes such as job satisfaction (Schneider, 2007). There are, however, a number of unanswered questions in PE fit research including:

1 What are people's experiences of PE fit? What does fit and misfit mean for individuals? What do they say is important? Is this the same as what the literature says is important?

2 What is misfit? Is it an absence of fit? Is it the opposite to fit?

Rather than addressing the outcomes of the interaction between the person and their environment (i.e. the behaviours associated with fit or misfit) this study instead focuses on how fit and misfit perceptions are formed. How do people say they interact with their

working environment and how does this shape their perceptions of fit and misfit? How are people's reports of fit and misfit similar and/or different?

The literature review is split into two chapters. The first chapter focuses on the person-environment psychology (PEP) literature; the broad field concerned with understanding how people's behaviour is a joint function of both environmental and personal factors (Schneider, Kristof-Brown, Goldstein, & Smith, 1997). It takes an historical perspective, showing how both trait theory and situationist research have contributed to the interactionist debate.

The second chapter addresses person-environment fit in the workplace more closely; specifically concentrating on the different ways in which fit has been conceptualised and the multiple ways in which individuals and organisations fit together. This chapter concludes that, despite the recognition that the fit between the person and the environment is affected by multiple dimensions, there are significant gaps in the literature, amongst which is misfit. Misfit has, to date, been largely ignored (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010).

The literature review starts with an overview of trait theory and continues by summarising the situationists' view that it is the situation which affects behaviour. Finally, the interactionist perspective is outlined and the main principles of PE fit are introduced.

2.2 Trait Theory

The question of where individuals' behaviour originates is an area which has seen considerable controversy and debate, the main focus of which has been whether behaviour stems from the individual, the situation or both. Trait theory, where individuals are presumed to have stable personality characteristics, posits that people are predisposed to behave in certain ways because of these traits (Endler & Rosenstein, 1997). People may therefore be sociable because they are extraverts or be shy and retiring because of their introvert personality. Although there has been much debate amongst personality

researchers as to what comprises personality, Krahé (1992) summarised three components of personality which are generally agreed upon:

> "1 Personality is the reflection of *individual uniqueness*.
>
> 2 Personality is *enduring* and *stable*
>
> 3 Personality and its reflection in behaviour are *determined* by forces or dispositions assumed to reside within the individual."
>
> (Krahé, 1992, p. 10 italics in original text).

An individual's personality has therefore been assumed to be consistent over time and across situations: a person who is neurotic will behave accordingly, now and in the future and also if faced with different situations. If viewed as such, traits could be used to predict behaviour and hence performance (Endler & Rosenstein, 1997) and consequently, models and personality tests were developed to measure these (Furnham, 1994). Personality tests particularly came to the fore during World War II when they were used to select which individuals would be particularly suited to be officers, pilots or spies for example (Schneider, 2007). Personality testing has continued to be widely used as a predictor of behaviour and performance, particularly in the organisational setting (Furnham, 1994).

Perhaps the best known personality paradigm is the Big Five - the 'five-factor model' of personality which, according to Costa and McCrae (1993, p. 21) "has been enormously successful in accommodating personality variables proposed by different theorists". They note that "there is now considerable consensus among trait psychologists on what the major personality factors are: Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness to experience (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C)" (Costa & McCrae, 1993, p. 20). The 'Big Five' received considerable support amongst trait theorists, with Goldberg for example saying "just as cartographers eventually settled on a standard system with north-south and east-west axes, so personality researchers must settle on a standard set of locations for the Big Five dimensions" (Goldberg, 1993, p. 30). Yet the Big Five has

not been without its critics. Pervin not only criticised how the five traits were derived through the use of factor-analytic models, but raised the concern that it "presents a static picture of the individual and "washes out" as residuals potentially interesting and significant data" (Pervin, 1994, p. 111).

Personality tests have also come under criticism for their low validity in predicting job performance, with Morgeson and colleagues (Morgeson, et al., 2007a, 2007b) particularly questioning the use of self-report measures. Despite their conclusions being criticised, (e.g. Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran, & Judge, 2007; Tett & Christiansen, 2007) the debate about the link between personality and behaviour continues, with a general consensus that theory-driven empirical research into the relationship between personality and performance is needed. As Guion (1965) noted more than 40 years ago, "Research must continue, but it should be basic research defining and classifying traits and discovering how a job applicant's personality relates to the personality he reveals later on the job."

2.3 Genetics, Motivation and Cognition

One of the criticisms of the trait approach is that by studying personality at the reactions or outcomes levels, it does not explain *why* some people have certain traits. Where personality originates has tended to be simplified into the nature-nurture debate: are people born with certain traits and predispositions or are these formed through their experiences and upbringing? Research into genetic differences have used studies of identical (monozygotic) and non-identical (dizygotic) twins brought up together and reared separately, to isolate genetic and environmental differences (Krahé, 1992). Eysenck (1990, p. 258) showed that "general findings from the major, large-scale analyses conducted recently and analysed according to state-of-the art methodology verify conclusions from previous research suggesting the great importance of genetic factors in determining differences in personality." This was particularly evident for neuroticism and extroversion

(see Loehlin, Lee, & Horn, 1988). Pervin (1978, p. 59) cautioned that "because a trait or characteristic is genetically determined does not mean that it is fixed and cannot be influenced by environmental manipulation." Although an individual's genes affect their personality, this does not mean that s/he is pre-destined to behave in a certain way: both nature and nurture are important in affecting behaviour (Loehlin, Horn, & Ernst, 2009).

Also relevant to explaining people's behaviour are their motives: "at their most abstract, motives represent an individual's wishes, goals, and desire to bring about particular states of affairs (consciously or unconsciously), or in the case of avoidance motives, states of affairs he/she would like to prevent" (Cortina & Ingerick, 2005, p. 123). How motives and traits relate to each other has been much debated, with some research showing conceptual links between the two (e.g. Costa & McCrae, 1988) whilst others regard "the two concepts as fundamentally distinct" (Pervin, 1994, p. 109). Winter and his colleagues showed that both traits and motives played "an important but *different* role in regulating behavior and life outcomes." (Winter, John, Stewart, Klohnen, & Duncan, 1998, p. 246 italics in original text). Although arguments abound about the role and nature of traits and motives, there is general agreement in the literature that whereas traits are assumed to be consistent, motives are shown to be variable in that the same motive may lead to different behaviours in different people (Cortina & Ingerick, 2005).

There are many theories of work motivation including for example need theories, where people are assumed to have particular needs which are satisfied through their behaviour at work (e.g. Alderfer, 1972; Maslow, 1954) and equity theories where people subjectively assess the fairness of what they contribute to work and the outputs that they receive compared to others (Adams, 1965). Many of these theories hold that motives are held consciously, assuming that individuals are aware of their values and what drives them and that their behaviour reflects explicit motives. Recently however, implicit motives have come to the fore (Pervin, 1996), renewing interest in the work of McClelland (1961) who showed that subconscious motivations affected the way in which people behaved. The

implication of subconscious motivations affecting behaviour is that people can not report them through standard self-report personality questionnaires.

Implicit motivation is linked to a third area of interest which is cognition. Cognition differs from traits in that "whereas traits emphasize what people *do* (or have done), cognitive aspects of personality focus on what people *think* or *believe*." (Cortina & Ingerick, 2005, p. 126). The focus on cognition has led to research on the processes of cognition, i.e. how people process information, but also the way in which they think about themselves, such as self esteem. People's levels of self esteem has been shown to be strongly correlated with individuals' performance at work (Terborg, Richardson, & Pritchard, 1980).

The implication of traits, genetics, motivation (explicit and implicit) and cognition all demonstrably affecting individuals' behaviour is that understanding and consequently predicting behaviour is complex and far from simple. This is further complicated by the role that the situation has on behaviour.

2.4 The Situation

In contrast to personality trait theory, other researchers put forward that it was not the individuals' inherent traits but rather the situation in which they were placed which affected the way in which they behaved. Mischel noted that there was great variation between people's behaviour and that changes in their environment played an important role (Mischel, 1968). He asked: "how can one identify and understand the psychological invariance that distinctively characterizes an individual and that underlies the variations in the thoughts, feelings, and actions that occur across contexts and over time?" (Mischel, 2004, p. 1) arguing that people's behaviour is dependent on the situation in which they find themselves, making Mischel a key figure in situationist research.

Like the variety of approaches in trait research, situationists also took various perspectives (Bowers, 1973), although they generally agreed that:

"1 Behaviour is highly situation-specific, not cross-situationally consistent.

2 Individual differences within a situation are attributed primarily to measurement error rather than broad internal dispositions.

3 Observed response patterns can be causally linked to the stimuli present in the situation.

4 The experiment is the most appropriate method for discovering such stimulus-response links." (Krahé, 1992, p. 29)

Situational theorists had a different view to trait theorists on not only the cause of individual behaviour but also the appropriateness of measurement and research methods. It was argued that people were highly adaptable, changing their behaviour as a response to different situations rather than behaving consistently across situations and that where there were individual differences within a situation, these were attributable to measurement error rather than individuals having different traits. As noted in point 4, situationists argued for the use of experiments where the stimulus (a change in the environment) and the response (the individual's behaviour) could be studied. For example, where there was an aggressive stimulus, people would behave more aggressively. Berkowitz and LePage (1967) tested this by conducting a study with male undergraduate students to ascertain whether they would behave more aggressively if an aggressive stimulus was present. They showed that individuals were more likely to administer electric shocks to another research participant where they were 'strongly aroused' and there were a rifle and revolver in the room (which were said to belong to the recipient of the shocks). The debate on whether aggressive stimuli cause aggressive behaviour is still relevant, for example, studies of the effects that violent video games have on children's behaviour show that exposure to violent stimuli lead to an increase in aggressive behaviour and a decrease in prosocial behaviour (Anderson & Bushman, 2001).

Bowers (1973) challenged the situationist view, particularly with respect to the assertion that experiments would necessarily show that situational stimuli had invoked a

behavioural response. He argued that concluding cause-effect relationships from experiments oversimplified the true nature of what may be happening, rather like concluding that "'letting go' of apples (the independent variable) 'causes' them to fall (the dependent variable)" (Bowers, 1973, p. 310). Alker (1972) similarly rejected the situationists' perspectives, noting that it "ignores the interaction of persons and situations" (Alker, 1972, p. 15). Despite situationists advocating the role of the setting, most also recognised that personality played a role in behaviour to a certain extent (Endler & Rosenstein, 1997).

2.5 The Interactionists

The theory that both an individual's personality *and* the situation in which they found themselves affected their behaviour first gained eminence in the 1920s and 1930s with Murray's "vague and incomplete" needs-press theory (Murray, 1938, p. 37) being a key contributor. Murray's (1938) 'Explorations in Personality' was an enormous volume of over 700 pages which attempted to build the foundations for a comprehensive theory of personality. He argued that individuals have needs and drives, (including for example needs for affiliation, order and achievement) and that some of these are conscious but others are held at an unconscious level. Murray noted that "need is a dynamic concept" (Murray, 1938, p. 67) and that needs could interact and were affected by environmental factors, which Murray referred to as 'press'. Press, according to Murray, were actual or perceived situations which had an impact on the individual.

Lewin (1935) similarly proposed that behaviour was a function of both the individual and the environment, rather than one of these in isolation, which he summarised with the formula: $B = f(P, E)$. His interactional approach put forward that personality and the situation in which people operated could not be studied independently as the two interacted and as such were inseparable (Endler & Rosenstein, 1997). But despite interactionist theories being proposed in the 1930s, they were for decades overshadowed

and largely forgotten as emphasis was placed on identifying people's inherent traits and as situationists argued the case for the environment being largely influential on people's behaviour (Schneider, 2007).

Modern interactionism came to the fore in the 1970s with Bowers' (1973) and Alker's (1972) challenges to the prevailing situationist view. Despite there being variation in how interactionism had been conceptualised, there were four areas of general agreement:

> "1 Actual behaviour is a function of a continuous process of multidirectional interaction or feedback between the individual and the situations he or she encounters.
>
> 2 The individual is an intentional, active agent in this interaction process.
>
> 3 On the person side of the interaction, cognitive and motivational factors are essential determinants of behaviour.
>
> 4 On the situation side, the psychological meaning of situations for the individual is the important determining factor." (Magnusson & Endler, 1977, p. 4)

As such, people were said to affect situations as much as situations affected them and the way in which individuals perceive any given situation depends on their interpretation. Different people will therefore perceive the same situation differently: for example, a shy person at a party would be expected to behave, perceive and interact with the environment differently to an outgoing person.

The interaction between the person and environment has been statistically assessed by the use of situation-response inventories (e.g. Endler & Okada, 1975) where participants are asked to say how they would respond to a given situation. Such instruments have allowed researchers to assess the relative influence of the person, the situation and their responses, but have been criticised for not taking into account the reciprocal nature of the person-environment interaction (e.g. Golding, 1975). Showing

how the person interacts with the environment, being both influenced by it and in turn influencing it, is inherently more difficult to capture. For example, in the study of people's interpersonal relationships (e.g. Malloy & Kenny, 1986; Peterson, 1979), an individual's traits affect the way in which s/he interacts with others and this in turn affects their behaviour (e.g. Bandura, 1986).

One particular difficulty therefore is in how the environment or situation is defined (Pervin, 1968) and how the individual interacts with it. The person-situation interaction can be viewed as a PxE interaction, where P is the moderator between E and a behavioural outcome or alternatively, E is the moderation between P and an outcome, each being seen as an independent variable. Endler and Parker (1992, p. 186) refer to this as "mechanistic interactionism" where analysis of variance is used to assess the structure of the interaction rather than its reciprocal effects. Terborg (1981) notes that such a view of a person-situation interaction rests primarily on the ability to describe statistically the additive effects each variable has.

A different perspective of interactionism is to assess the reciprocal effects of the situation and the individual on each other to consider how and why different people perceive similar situations in different ways (Terborg, 1981). Rather than considering the person and situation as being independent, they are treated as inter-dependent and as such, this can be seen as "dynamic" as opposed to "mechanistic interactionism" (Endler & Parker, 1992, p. 186). Studies of the dynamics involved in the interaction do not lend themselves to statistical tests such as ANOVA (Endler & Parker, 1992; Schneider, 2007) and they also suggest that cause-effect studies may not uncover the true nature of the interaction.

Malle and his colleagues noted that "a more general problem of the causal-rating approach to explanations is that rating scales only weakly indicate what people actually do when they explain behaviour. ... Thus when people are required to provide causal ratings instead of expressing verbal explanations, they are much like musicians who audition for

an orchestra but are asked to analyze music rather than invited to play." (Malle, Knobe, O'Laughlin, Pearce, & Nelson, 2000, p. 309). They suggest that using free-response explanations using natural texts allows the study of people's behaviour and how they make sense of others' behaviour.

Mischel's recent work (Idson & Mischel, 2001; Kammrath, Mendoza-Denton, & Mischel, 2005; Mendoza-Denton, Ayduk, Mischel, Shoda, & Testa, 2001; Mischel & Shoda, 1995) on the interaction between people's personality, the situation and the resulting behaviour, shows that people take the situation into account when explaining their own and others' behaviour. People have been shown to express behaviour in "if ... then ..." terms (Kammrath, et al., 2005, p. 605), for example if Jane is in X situation then she will behave in Y way. Individuals will wait for sufficient information to be collected before coming to a conclusion about people's behaviour because in order to assess whether an individual is kind and concerned for others (for example), it is necessary to understand people's underlying motives. If Jane is a kind person, she may be friendly to a person who is standing on their own at a party but may conversely be frosty to a person who is ridiculing that individual. The behaviour is different, but observers have been shown to comprehend that the combination of personality and motives lead to different behaviours with the same underlying trait coming to the fore (Kammrath, et al., 2005).

The additive person-situation model (figure 2.1, A) is therefore inadequate in explaining behaviour and interactionist researchers have recognised that behaviour is a complex dynamic (figure 2.1, B). Understanding this complexity is "as common in everyday social perception as it is rare in social perception research" (Kammrath, et al., 2005, p. 616).

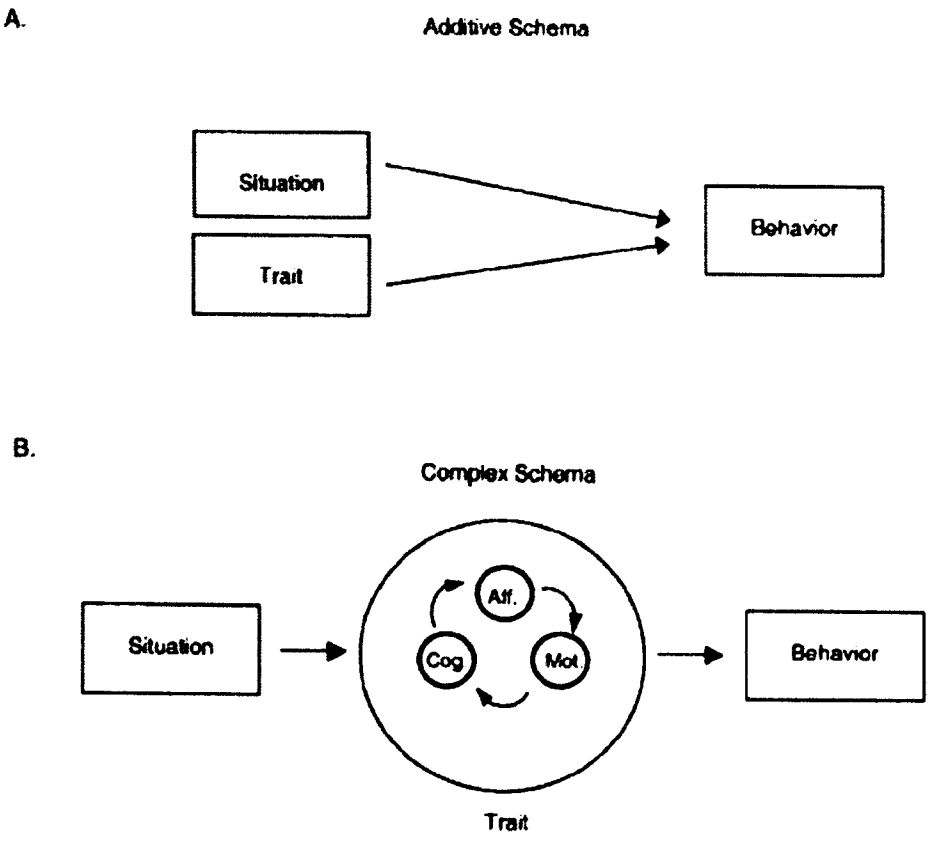


Figure 1. Two lay causal schemas. Cog. = cognition; Aff. = affect; Mot. = motivation.

Figure 2.1 Schema of Person-Situation Interaction

Source: Kammrath, L. K., Mendoza-Denton, R., & Mischel, W. (2005) page 606.

2.6 Person-Environment Fit

Another perspective on how the individual and environment interact to shape or influence behaviour is to look at the *fit* between the person and their environment. Person-environment fit (PE fit) theory contends that "attitudes and behaviours result from the congruence between attributes of the person and the environment" (Cable & Edwards, 2004, p. 822). Pervin (1968, p. 56) noted that "a 'match' or 'best fit' of individual to environment is viewed as expressing itself in high performance, satisfaction, and little stress in the system whereas a 'lack of fit' is viewed as resulting in decreased performance, dissatisfaction, and stress in the system."

Studies of PE fit have tended to focus on particular environments such as schools (see Miller, 1981), health-care settings (e.g. Tziner, 1983) or the workplace. Moos (1987)

suggested that each of these environments differed in their social climate, particularly in terms of the extent to which people were supportive of each other, the opportunities presented for personal growth and the degree of structure, clarity and change in the system. Moos (1987) noted that some environments were more powerful than others, particularly where they were homogeneous and socially integrated. He gave the example of grouping together the most academically-able students in a class which could inspire those in the group to strive to maximise their achievements but may have an adverse effect on the less able students. Such powerful environments, Moos argued, gave fewer opportunities for individuals to adapt than when they were in less powerful, more heterogeneous settings, where individuals would have a greater choice of how to behave. He additionally noted that any environment which is sufficiently powerful to cause people to adapt their behaviour is also likely to induce stress in those who are unable to adapt. Those people who have coping strategies (such as negotiation skills) and personal resources such as internal control and self-efficacy may be better able to manage the demands of a powerful environment, especially if they also had cohesive networks of friends and family who they could turn to for support. People without such personal resources, coping strategies and support networks are more likely to withdraw from the environment (Moos, 1987).

In the 'theory of work adjustment' (TWA) developed by Dawis, England and Lofquist (1964) and subsequently revised and refined (Dawis & Lofquist, 1978), PE fit was particularly applied to the workplace. The authors proposed a model of fit (which they termed 'correspondence') between work personality and work environment where there was a reciprocal relationship between the two. Drawing on Murray's needs-press theory (1938), TWA proposed that people fulfilled the needs of the work environment and that individuals' needs were fulfilled by their work (Rounds, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1987). The dynamic process by which the fit or correspondence between the individual and their work is maintained was termed work adjustment. The outcome of mutual fit and adjustment

between the person and their work results in positive outcomes such as job satisfaction (Rounds, et al., 1987).

An important aspect of TWA centred on individuals' vocational needs and how these are satisfied by the work environment. PE fit studies have frequently focused on the fit between individuals and careers (see Osipow, 1990) perhaps the best known of which is Holland's (1973; 1985) theory of vocational choice. According to this theory, certain types of people are attracted to and remain in certain careers. Holland proposed that people's personality types, upbringing, preferences and experience affected their career choice and that they sought to work in environments where they were able to work with like-minded others (Furnham, 1994). Holland's theory is more fully explained in chapter 3 as it forms a part of the constellation of different forms of people's fit with the work environment. It is mentioned here because Holland's work had an important influence on the work of Schneider, who gave a new perspective on the person-environment fit interaction.

In his early work, Schneider (e.g. 1972) focused on individuals' fit with their environment, testing the assumption that people would perform best in situations matching their expectations. He was frustrated in his efforts to show how independent person and environment variables interacted (Schneider, 1987a), but Bowers' (1973) observations that people selected themselves in and out of situations coupled with Holland's (1985) theory of vocational choice, sparked a different perspective on PE fit. Schneider (1987b) proposed that environments are not static, physical spaces but rather they are 'constructed' by the people within them. In this vein, an organisation is a collection of individuals and "it is the nature of the people in an environment that make it the way it is" (Schneider, 1987a, p. 355).

Schneider (1987b) thereby challenged Lewin's (1935) hypothesis that behaviour is a function of people's interaction with the environment ($B = f(P, E)$) instead theorising that $E = f(P, B)$, in other words, the environment is a function of the people behaving in it. In

arguing this point, Schneider (1987b) theorised that similar people are attracted to organisations, are selected by them and will then remain in those settings. People fit environments because they are similar to those who constitute the environment, hence Schneider's conclusion that "the people make the place" (Schneider, 1987b, p. 437).

2.7 Conclusion

The discussion in the preceding sections has illustrated the debate that has taken place over the past 80 years to unravel the array of factors affecting human behaviour. There is substantial research to show that people have personality traits, which are at least in part genetically determined, as well as motives and different ways of thinking about themselves and others. Situations or environmental stimuli on their own do not explain behaviour; rather personality and the environment together account for why people behave in the way that they do. The reciprocal effect of people's interaction with their environments was shown to play an important role in the way in which people behave and there is now general agreement that it is the interaction of both the person and the environment that is important (Krahé, 1992). However, the discussion in this chapter has illustrated the difficulty in measuring the interaction between complex individuals and environments and that standard statistical methods tend not to capture the interactive effects.

This chapter concluded by looking at PE fit in its broadest sense and it was shown that the fit between the person and the work environment predicts outcomes, particularly affective outcomes such as satisfaction and adjustment.

Chapter 3 examines fit in the workplace more closely, identifying what particular aspects of the organisation a person may fit with, how fit has been conceptualised and how research has distinguished between 'objective' measures of PE fit and people's perceptions of their fit.

Chapter 3: Literature Review II

Person-Environment Fit

"Of all of the issues in psychology that have fascinated scholars and practitioners alike none has been more pervasive than the one concerning the fit of person and environment." (Schneider, 2001, p. 141)

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter gave an overview of the person-environment psychology literature and specifically focused on how both personal (personality, genetics, motives, cognition) and environmental factors interact to cause behaviour. It showed how interactional psychology gave rise to the study of person-environment fit; the theory that it is the fit between the individual and the environment which leads to outcomes such as job satisfaction and performance. The chapter ended with a brief introduction to the work of Schneider (1987b), who theorised that similar people are attracted to and selected by organisations and that dissimilar people leave. According to this theory, it is this process of attraction, selection and attrition which causes organisations to be inhabited by similar people who make it the place that it is.

This chapter takes a more detailed look at person-environment fit, starting with an explanation of Schneider's (1987b) attraction – selection – attrition (ASA) theory which underpins much PE fit research. The chapter goes on to explain person-environment fit in detail: how fit has been conceptualised, how it has been measured and how people's fit with different aspects of the organisation, for example with the organisation's values, jobs, vocations, supervisors and co-workers, has been studied. The chapter shows how these ways in which people fit with different aspects of the organisational environment have been coalesced into models of multi-dimensional fit where it is theorised that people do not

fit with just one part of the organisation, but rather that they fit with many aspects of work simultaneously. It is also shown that the vast majority of studies have approached the analysis of the fit between the person and their work environment from a positivist stance and that to date, there has been little qualitative research to explicate people's experiences of fit and misfit at work.

The final section of this chapter focuses on misfit. As mentioned in the introduction to chapter 2, misfit has not garnered a great deal of attention in the PE fit literature to date but those studies which have shed light on it are reviewed. What is shown is that misfit tends to be viewed as an absence of fit or as the opposite to fit. It is known that people perceive fit to be important (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005) and that people tend to stay with organisations when they fit and that when they misfit, they leave (Chatman, 1991; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, et al., 2005; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Schneider, 1987b). The misfit between the person and their environment is also known to cause stress or as Edwards and Cooper said "this lack of correspondence [between the characteristics of the person and the environment] is hypothesised to generate deleterious psychological, physiological, and behavioural outcomes which eventually result in increased morbidity and mortality" (Edwards & Cooper, 1990, p. 293). However, despite its importance to organisations and individuals, little is known about how people experience misfit and how this compares to people's experiences of fitting in at work.

This chapter concludes with research questions and propositions which emerge from the literature.

3.2 Attraction – Selection – Attrition

One of the seminal theories in PE fit research is Schneider's ASA theory where he proposed that "people are not randomly assigned to settings" (Schneider, 1987b, p. 440) but rather that similar people are attracted to organisations, are selected by them and are

retained. He proposed that if people erroneously join organisations where they do not fit, they will leave. These three key steps of attraction, selection and attrition make up the ASA model, where the outcome is that organisations, by recruiting individuals who fit and shedding those who do not, become increasingly homogenous.

The organisation's founders play an important role in that they set the goals and influence the types of structures that the organisation adopts as well as the overall culture (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). People make decisions as to whether they wish to work for the organisation based on whether they perceive that their personal characteristics are congruent with the organisation's characteristics and values.

The proposition that similar people are attracted to and selected by organisations has been tested in several studies of job seekers' fit with the organisation (e.g. Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Judge & Cable, 1997; Ryan & Ployhart, 2000), and recruiters' perceptions of applicants' fit (e.g. Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991; Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000). Meta-analytic reviews (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, et al., 2005) have shown that individuals do perceive that they will fit when they apply to organisations but that this does not necessarily translate into actual job applications. Billsberry (2007) for example found that graduates apply for specific vocations rather than applying to work in an organisation because of its values or culture.

Although there is support for the attraction and selection hypotheses, attraction and selection do not appear to be the only antecedents to a person's fit with an organisation (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). Chatman's (1991) study of entry-level auditors in public accounting firms in the US found that person-organisation fit (PO fit) was highest for those new recruits whose values matched the organisations' values but that for other participants, their fit was affected by socialization experiences. This suggests that individuals are not necessarily recruited with values that match the organisation's values but rather that they go through a process, for example induction and establishing networks, which allow them

to fit. This was confirmed by Cooper-Thomas, Van Vianen and Anderson (2004) who demonstrated that socialization experiences affected perceived fit but not actual fit. Rather, actual fit and perceived fit became more similar over time, as the new recruits' changed their perception of the organisation that they had joined.

A longitudinal study by De Cooman and colleagues (2009) also found that socialization enhanced individuals' fit with the organisation. The authors further tested the attrition propositions in Schneider's (1987b) ASA theory which theorises that people who do not fit exit the organisation. The attrition proposition is important to Schneider's 'homogeneity hypothesis' as it is by dissimilar people leaving the organisation that the remaining incumbents are more similar and less heterogeneous. De Cooman et al (2009) found that very few of the study's participants left their jobs but that those who did reported lower perceived fit between their own values and those of the organisation.

Schneider made it clear in discussions about the ASA model that there is an implicit danger of organisations becoming more homogenous as there is the possibility that an organisation becomes so 'ingrown' due to its recruits' like-minded thinking and behaviour that it is incapable of adapting to new situations. As such, Schneider and colleagues suggested that ultimately, high fit may well have negative organisational outcomes and that although good fit might be positive for the individual, organisational homogeneity may lead to "organizations incapable of adapting to environmental changes" (Schneider, et al., 1997, p. 399). Argyris (1958) similarly argued that having an organisation staffed with too many people of 'one type' led to a lack of innovation. This led Schneider and colleagues to reflect that "perhaps selecting for good P-O fit is not such a good idea" (Schneider, et al., 1997, p. 400) and he therefore stressed the importance of organisations recruiting people who do not fit to improve the chances of its long term survival (Schneider, 1987b).

Schneider's ASA theory has been explained here because it is referred to in the vast majority of person-environment fit papers. ASA theory specifically predicts organisation

level effects, theorising that by attracting and retaining similar individuals, the organisation will become more homogenous over time. It does not seek to explain individual level effects or precisely how individuals and organisations fit together or misfit. The following sections look at how the fit between people and organisations has been conceptualised and operationalised.

3.3 Supplementary and Complementary Fit

One of the fundamental questions in PE fit research concerns how fit is conceptualised (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010) and much of the debate specifically centres on how people fit with aspects of the organisation. Person-organisation fit (PO fit) was defined by Kristof (1996, pp. 4 - 5) as "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when a) at least one entity provides what the other needs or b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or c) both." This definition includes two different ways of viewing fit: firstly, that fit occurs when one party provides what the other needs and secondly, that fit results from the similarity between the person and the organisation. Muchinsky and Monahan (1987, p. 268) labelled these two different perspectives "supplementary congruence" and "complementary congruence."

The supplementary fit perspective views fit in terms of the congruence, match or similarity between the person and the environment, like the adage that 'birds of a feather flock together.' This is the view of fit taken by Schneider who said, as an example, that "a doctor may choose to affiliate with hospital A versus hospital B based on his or her estimate of the fit or congruence between his or her own personality and the values he or she believes characterize the two hospitals" (Schneider, et al., 1995, p. 749).

Supplementary fit is based on the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1961) which proposes that people are attracted to others who hold similar "attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and values" (Byrne & Nelson, 1965, p. 659). Conversely, people get a negative impression of people who are dissimilar to them. Smeaton, Byrne and Murnen

hypothesised that individuals may form relationships in two stages: "In the first stage, dissimilar attitudes and other negative information may be used to exclude undesirable others ... In the second stage, individuals turn to attitude similarity and other positive information to select candidates for interpersonal closeness" (Smeaton, Byrne, & Murnen, 1989, p. 58).

Many fit studies have used the congruence of individuals' and organisational values to assess fit (e.g. Adkins, Russell, & Werbel, 1994; Cable & Judge, 1996, 1997; Chatman, 1991; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; O'Reilly, et al., 1991) with the underlying assumption being that a match of personal and organisational or 'good' fit leads to positive outcomes. Complementary fit studies take a different perspective on fit and rather than assessing the exact match between the person and the organisation instead theorise that one party can complement or make the other whole. For example, a project team may comprise a number of people with different skills and abilities but be missing technical expertise. By recruiting a person with the relevant skills, that person fits by fulfilling a need that exists. Complementary fit is thus based on the premise of needs fulfilment (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010), where either the organisation meets the individual's needs (needs-supplies fit) or the organisational needs are met by the individual (demands-abilities fit), similar to Murray's (1938) needs-press theory described in chapter 2. The way in which individuals' psychological needs are fulfilled by the organisation (for example, individuals' need for autonomy) is a common approach to needs-supplies fit, whereas in recruitment settings, demands-abilities fit is used to assess how individuals' knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) match the requirements of the job (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Kristof (1996, p. 4) diagrammatically presented the way in which both supplementary fit and complementary fit conceptualisations take into account organisational characteristics, supplies and demands in relation to individuals' characteristics, supplies and demands (figure 3.1).

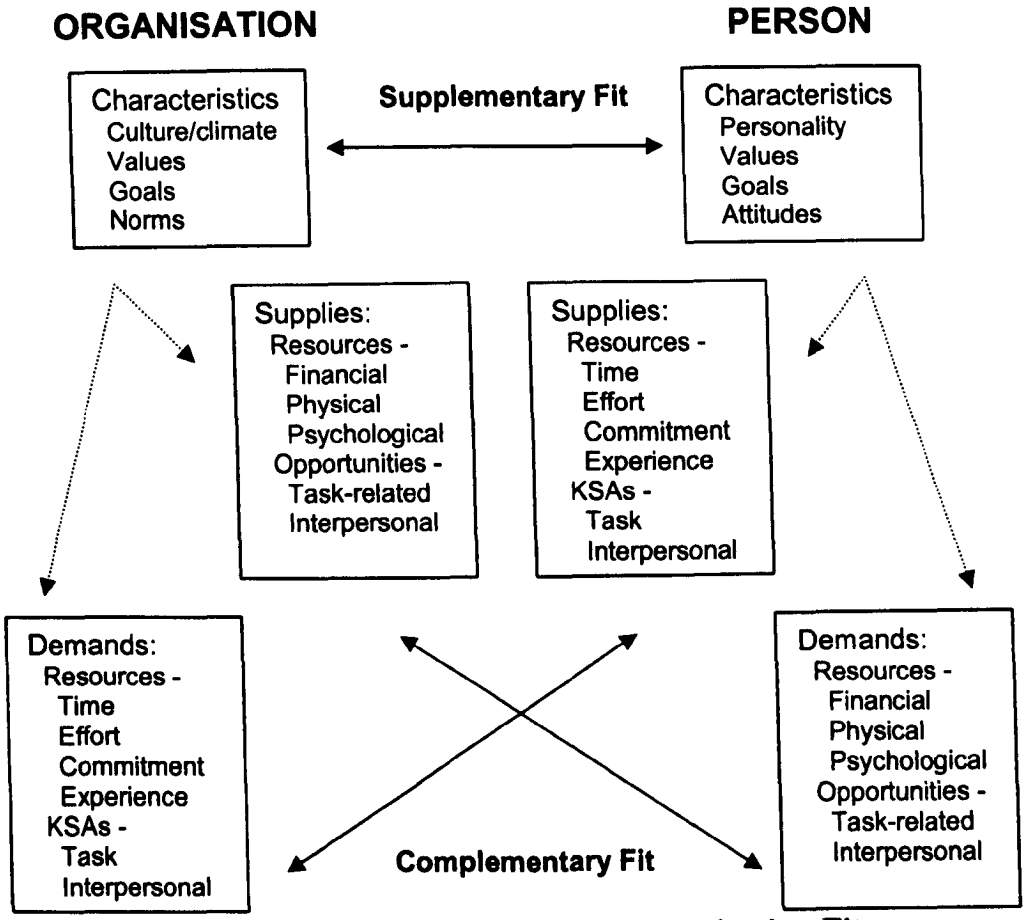


Figure 3.1 Conceptualisations of Person–Organisation Fit

Source: Kristof (1996, p. 4).

Despite complementary and supplementary fit often being considered separately, Cable and DeRue (2002) found that both were relevant to people's fit perceptions. Their longitudinal study of managers' fit perceptions found that individuals' supplementary fit perceptions (in terms of whether their values were congruent with the organisation's values) predicted organisational outcomes such as identification with the organisation, perceived organisational support and turnover intention. Cable and DeRue (2002) further found that needs-supplies fit (i.e. complementary fit) was related to job focused outcomes such as job satisfaction and occupational commitment. The authors therefore proposed that although supplementary and complementary fit may be distinct theoretical conceptualisations, they operate simultaneously but independently. Cable and Edwards (2004, p. 830) similarly concluded that "complementary and supplementary fit are interrelated but that both contribute independently to outcomes."

3.4 The Measurement of Fit

A further complication in fit research is that there are different approaches to how the fit between people and their environment is measured (Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007). There are two main approaches: firstly, it is possible to measure 'actual' fit which is based on the assumption that it is possible to take objective measures of the person and their working environment and to compare these. Secondly, some studies assess subjective or perceived fit which is where people are asked about their perceptions of fit with the organisational environment.

In using objective or 'actual' fit measurements, it is possible to not only measure how similar the individual and the organisation are (supplementary fit) but as outlined in section 3.3, it is also possible to assess complementary fit, i.e. how well one of the parties meets the other's needs (Kristof, 1996). For example, an individual may bring skills to an organisation which it is lacking and in need of and thus the individual fits by virtue of the fact that they are meeting this organisational need. However, as Ostroff and Schulte (2007, p. 13) note, other person-centred variables such as "traits, needs, desires, preferences, interests, goals, values, and perceptions; and demographic and background characteristics such as race, gender, and education" have been considered as the P side of the PO equation in fit research. Equally, there is a range of possible variables to be considered on the O side of the equation, which can be either a single feature of the organisation (for example, its goals) or an "aggregate assessment of the personal characteristics among individuals in the job, unit, or organization" (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007, p. 13). From the ASA perspective, Schneider (2001, p. 149) has argued that "environments may usefully be conceptualised as a function of the attributes of the people in them, and there is recent research to suggest that the measurement of environments can be done based on the attributes of the people in them."

One instrument which has frequently been used to assess objective or actual fit is the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), developed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991). The OCP is a 'deck' of 54 value statements which are sorted by the participants into being "most representative" to "least representative" (Cable & Judge, 1996, p. 299) of the organisation and the individual. The organisation's culture or value system is measured by asking people familiar with the organisation to sort the value statement cards and an aggregate measure of the culture or organisational values is thereby reached. The individual's ranking of the value statements is compared with the aggregate rating to arrive at a measure of fit. In using objective measures, fit is said to occur when the measure of the person and environment are the same, i.e. P = E. Conversely, misfit is assumed to occur when there is a lack of congruence between the person and the environment: "Logically, misfit occurs when any attribute *a* is different for *P* and *E*, and the largest amount of misfit on that attribute should occur when P_a and E_a are as different as possible" (Harrison, 2007, p. 408 italics in original text).

The second way of measuring fit is by asking people how they perceive they fit. There are three ways of doing this, the first of which is known as subjective or molar fit (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006), where fit perceptions are measured by asking people to "report an overall assessment of the fit between themselves and the organization" (Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007, p. 133). Such an approach to assessing fit asks the individual for a direct measure of their fit with the environment rather than gaining independent measures of the individual and their environment and as such is prone to common method, single source bias (Van Vianen, De Pater, & Van Dijk, 2007). However, direct measures of subjective fit have been widely used in fit research (e.g. Cable & DeRue, 2002; Judge & Cable, 1997; Saks & Ashforth, 1997) and meta-analyses have shown this approach to have the strongest relationship to organisational and affective outcomes (Arthur, Bell, Villado, & Doverspike, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, et al., 2005; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003).

A second way in which to measure subjective fit is to take indirect measures which involves asking individuals to report on themselves and the environment separately, usually at separate points in time (Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007). This was labelled 'atomistic' fit by Edwards et al (2006) who noted that for complementary fit studies, individuals would be asked to report what they want from the organisation (i.e. their needs) and then to separately report what the organisation supplies (e.g. Bretz & Judge, 1994). Alternatively, the organisational demands can be separately assessed from the abilities that an individual brings to the job and hence, atomistic approaches have been used to study outcomes such as stress (e.g. Edwards, 1996), performance (e.g. Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990) and creativity (Livingstone, Nelson, & Barr, 1997). Supplementary fit can also be assessed using atomistic approaches such that individuals are asked to report their values and, at a different point in time, to describe their organisations' values (e.g. Cable & Judge, 1996).

A third way in which subjective fit can be assessed is the molecular approach (Edwards, et al., 2006). Studies which assess molecular fit ask respondents how they perceive the discrepancy between themselves and the environment, for example, how their abilities exceed the demands of the job or how what is supplied by the organisation gives them more or less of what they need. Molecular approaches tend to be used infrequently in empirical studies of fit; rather they have been used in related fields to assess outcomes such as job satisfaction (e.g. Rice, Peirce, Moyer, & McFarlin, 1991) and stress (Beehr, Walsh, & Taber, 1976; Taber, Beehr, & Walsh, 1985). In the studies by Beehr and colleagues (Beehr, et al., 1976) for example, they assessed the extent to which role overload and role ambiguity led to stress.

The discussion above and in section 3.3 has shown that it is possible to conceptualise fit as both the similarity between the person and the environment and also how the two are different but complementary. Fit can be measured by taking independent measures of the individual and the environment or by asking people about their overall

perceptions of fit, their perceptions of themselves and the environment separately or by asking them whether they perceive there to be a discrepancy between themselves and their working environment. It is relatively straightforward to assess whether an individual is similar or different on a categorical variable, so that for example, being extroverted makes an individual different to a group of introverted co-workers (Harrison, 2007). However, "one attribute of an individual could fit well with a particular situational attribute, but the person might also have other characteristics that are incompatible with important attributes also present in that situation" (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 2007, p. 357). Caldwell et al therefore proposed using profile comparison methods, specifically the OCP, arguing that these "allow researchers to derive a single index that simultaneously captures fit across multiple dimensions" (Caldwell, et al., 2007, p. 361). However Harrison (2007) argued that the aggregation of scores across different fit dimensions to give a single fit 'score' can be misleading as it gives no indication of whether the scores for the P variables were high or low as compared to the (high or low) E variables.

Edwards (2002) has similarly argued that the use of difference scores in PE fit research "combine measures of conceptually distinct constructs into a single score" which leads to an ambiguous results and has suggested that the use of polynomial regression avoids this problem (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993). Whereas difference scores take values for P and E and collapse these into a single fit score (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010), polynomial regression analyses assess the form of the relationship between P, E and the outcome (for example job satisfaction) and these are mapped onto a surface graph to show the relationship between the three. Using polynomial regression gives a graph with a 'fit line' where the person and environment are equal and outcomes are maximised and a 'misfit line' where there is maximum variance between the person and environment (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

In one study using polynomial regression, Edwards and Harrison (1993) reanalysed the data from French et al's (1982) study of the relationship between PE fit and stress.

They found that by modelling a three-dimensional relationship between the person, the environment and stress showed a more complex relationship than French et al's (1982) study had been able to show. PE fit studies which have followed Edwards' recommendations to use polynomial regression techniques (e.g. Kristof-Brown, Barrick, & Stevens, 2005; Livingstone, et al., 1997; Van Vianen, 2000) have similarly found that exact congruence between P and E does not tend to predict optimal outcomes, suggesting that an exact match of the person and specific aspects of the environment may not lead to high affective outcomes such as job satisfaction.

The notion that an exact match of values is necessary for good fit and subsequent positive outcomes such as job satisfaction has recently been scrutinised by Edwards and Cable (2009). They argued that little research to date has addressed *why* positive outcomes, specifically job satisfaction, organisational identification and intent to stay, arise out of an individual having values which are congruent with the organisation's values. Edwards and Cable (2009), consistent with other studies (e.g. Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990) defined values as "general beliefs about the importance of normatively desirable behaviors or end states." They found that "value congruence effects are often more complex than implied by theories of values congruence" (Edwards & Cable, 2009, p. 655) and, by using polynomial regression, that higher satisfaction tends to arise from organisational values exceeding individuals' values rather than where there is an exact match. Despite the values congruence approach dominating fit research, it is being called into question whether exact correspondence between the values of the organisation and individual necessarily means that positive outcomes or behaviour will result.

The polynomial regression method has not been without critics in the PE fit field however. Judge (2007) particularly criticised the method for its lack of replicability and use of "inductively derived" surface plots. As an alternative, Mumford and Espejo (2007) advocated cluster analysis where similar people are clustered together on the basis of a common attribute (such as a personality trait or values) and their performance is assessed

in a particular work environment. Caldwell and colleagues (2007) however maintained that profile comparison methods "have the potential to be more comprehensive than, for example, approaches that are based on experimental designs examining the interaction between a person and the situation variable (e.g., Chatman & Barsade, 1995) or approaches that use statistical interactions (e.g., Edwards, 1995) to study person situation fit" (Caldwell, et al., 2007, p. 357). Different methods have therefore been proposed and used to assess fit, each with differing strengths and weaknesses.

The preceding discussion has shown that there is a variety of ways in which the fit between people and organisations can be assessed (Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007). As noted above, the fit between the person and the organisation in terms of values congruence has been a frequent focus for empirical studies (Van Vianen, et al., 2007) but fit can also be assessed at different levels of analysis: between the person and the job, their vocation, the work group and with other individuals such as supervisors. These different dimensions of fit are discussed next.

3.5 Dimensions of Fit

PE fit is, in essence, an umbrella term, "a complex and multidimensional concept" (Sekiguchi, 2006, p. 48). Under this umbrella sit different types of fit: person-organisation (PO fit), person-vocation (PV fit), person-job (PJ fit), person-supervisor fit (PS fit), person-group (PG fit) and person-person fit (PP fit) (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006). PP fit has two distinct meanings in the literature: Van Vianen (2000) used it to denote the fit between a person and his/her preference for a particular organisational culture whereas Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) used PP fit to capture the dyadic fit between an individual and another person in the working environment. To avoid confusion, person-individual fit (PI fit) is used in this study to signify the fit between a person and a co-worker whereas PS fit is used for the dyadic fit between a person and their supervisor.

3.5.1 Person-Organisation Fit

PO fit was first conceptualised by Chatman who defined it as "the congruence between the norms and values of organizations and the values of persons" (Chatman, 1989, p. 339). Chatman argued that earlier studies had put too much emphasis on the person or the situation and had failed to take into account that there was equal interaction between the two, with people both choosing to be in particular situations and changing the situations that they are in. Because "a fundamental and enduring aspect of both organizations and people is their values" (Chatman, 1989, p. 339), values were seen as a way of showing how the person and the organisation would fit together, particularly during recruitment and selection as well as the subsequent socialisation of new recruits. However, "organizations do not really possess values apart from the values of their members" (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998, p. 357) so an assessment of whether an individual shares the 'organisational' values necessarily depends on whether an aggregate measure of values reflects those values that are held and shared among employees.

Chatman (1991) subsequently tested her model of PO fit in a study of 171 auditors in US public accounting firms, where she hypothesised that high PO fit would mean that a person had high job satisfaction and was less likely to leave an organisation. In this longitudinal study, Chatman (1991) confirmed this hypothesis and also found that socialization experiences (such as going to company functions and attending other social events) contribute to PO fit. However, it was recognised that people who fit may be more likely to attend such events.

A limitation of Chatman's study was that it was retrospective and one recommendation was therefore that future research should include respondents who were seeking jobs. Cable and Judge (1996) pursued this avenue and studied 96 job seekers from their initial job search to the time of them leaving their roles. This research sought to determine how important PO fit perceptions were for the recruits. Like Chatman (1991), Cable and Judge (1996) used an adapted version of the OCP and their findings, that PO fit

results where an individual's values are congruent with their perceptions of the organisation's values, is consistent with Schneider's (1987b) theory.

However, although Cable and Judge's (1996) research built on some of the limitations of Chatman's (1991) study, it did not show *why* people who report PO fit experienced more positive work attitudes and the authors had doubts about whether any causality could be inferred from the findings. For example, they raised the question whether people may feel it socially desirable to report PO fit or, that once they had reported it in one survey, that they may experience cognitive dissonance if they gave a contrary account in a later survey (Cable & Judge, 1996). This reflects the point made by Meglino and Ravlin who, in their review of the literature on values observed that "because values are socially desirable, there are strong pressures to publicly express and validate values whether or not they are held internally"(Meglino & Ravlin, 1998, p. 356).

In a study by McCulloch and Turban (2007) into PO fit in selection decisions, the congruence between individuals' values and the employing unit's culture was found to predict retention, in line with Schneider's (1987b) ASA theory. However, although the authors determined that fit was positively related to job satisfaction, this was found to be unrelated to job performance. Arthur, Bell, Villado and Doverspike (2006), in a meta analysis of the criterion validity of using PO fit measures in recruitment and selection, also concluded that "PO fit is not a good predictor of job performance" and went on to advise that "organizations should exercise caution when using P-O fit to make employment-related decisions (e.g. selection) in the absence of local validation studies or until new research refutes the findings obtained here" (Arthur, et al., 2006, p. 797).

The underlying principle of PO fit research that 'good fit' is positive both for individuals and organisations has been coming under scrutiny. Until recently, high PO fit, specifically through individuals and organisations having congruent values, had been expected to have beneficial outcomes for individuals (e.g. higher satisfaction and lower stress) and organisations (e.g. a more committed workforce) (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly, et

al., 1991). Meta analyses by Arthur et al (2006), Verquer, Beehr and Wagner (2003) and Hoffman and Woehr (2006) have highlighted that different studies have garnered differing results pertaining to the outcomes of PO fit, although it is argued that "P-O fit appears to be promising as an important determinant of employee attitudes, but there are several intriguing issues yet to be understood" (Verquer et al, 2003, p. 487).

3.5.2 Person-Vocation Fit

PO fit has been the focus of a large number of studies but researchers have also considered the fit of people to vocations (PV fit), jobs (PJ fit), groups (PG fit), supervisors (PS fit) and other individuals (PI fit). The broadest of these is PV fit (Kristof, 1996) and, as noted in chapter 2, how people fit with vocations has long been of interest to organisational psychologists (Super, 1953). Holland (1985) proposed that both people and occupations fell into one of six personality types (realistic, investigative, social, conventional, enterprising and artistic) and that people chose vocations that matched their personalities. Similar to ASA theory, Holland (1985) posited that people are attracted to vocations where they will fit and organisations will select and try to retain individuals who fit which, over time, increases the homogeneity of the vocational grouping.

In a study by Satterwhite, Fleenor, Braddy, Feldman and Hoopes (2009) they tested whether vocational choice theory led to a 'modal personality' within occupations and organisations. The authors used a personality questionnaire (the Personal Resilience Questionnaire) with 6582 participants in eight occupations across eight organisations and found that "while homogeneity exists both within occupations and within organizations, homogeneity within occupations is greater" (Satterwhite, et al., 2009, p. 162) thus supporting Schneider's et al's (1998) homogeneity hypothesis at the vocational level. One conclusion that Satterwhite et al (2009) drew from this finding was that because occupational groupings may differ in their perceptions of the organisational values, it is beneficial for studies of PO fit to include more than one occupational category.

3.5.3 Person-Group Fit

PG fit is defined as "the compatibility between individuals and their work group" (Kristof, 1996, p. 7) and can be conceptualised as either supplementary fit (where the individual is similar to others in the group) or complementary fit (where a person meets a need that exists within the group). Ferris, Youngblood and Yates (1985) used personality testing with 101 female, newly recruited flight attendants to assess the congruence of personality between the individual recruits and successful job incumbents. They hypothesised that those with high PG fit would perform better, have fewer absences and be less likely to leave the organisation. Ferris et al (1985) did not find direct support for their hypotheses but found that PG fit played an indirect role as a moderator, noting that for those participants who were low on PG fit, leaving the organisation was an adaptive response. However, by assessing the fit of the individual to successful job incumbents in the organisation, they focused more widely than the participants' immediate teams and therefore, whether the authors' findings are applicable at the group level is questionable.

Barsade, Ward, Turner and Sonnenfeld (2000) also focused on personality similarity in groups, specifically studying positive affect in top management teams. Positive affect "refers to the tendency to experience intense pleasant feelings" (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003, p. 832) such as enthusiasm and excitement. Negative affect conversely is where people have a tendency to experience intense unpleasant feelings such as anxiety and anger. Barsade et al (2000) found that where there was high fit between the individual's and the team's positive affect there was also high satisfaction and individuals felt that they had influence on the team. Where teams had high positive affect, they tended to be happy teams with low task and emotional conflict. This was however also true for teams who scored low on positive affect: as long as the group was homogenous (either all being high or low on positive affect), they tended to cooperate well and experience low conflict. However, top management teams who were

heterogeneous with regard to their affective states (i.e. where the teams consisted of a people with varying positive and negative affective states) tended to experience high levels of conflict.

Werbel and Johnson (2001) noted that how well a person fits with the team is important because most organisations require employees to work together and make effective contributions to the team effort. They argued that both supplementary and complementary group fit are needed, as having shared values makes it easier for groups to work positively towards the same goals (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) whereas complementary fit ensures that the group has the right mix of skills and abilities.

The role of complementary fit in attracting individuals to teams was tested by Kristof-Brown, Barrick and Stevens (2005) who hypothesised that individuals who were highly extravert would be attracted to teams low on extraversion and conversely that people who were introverted would be attracted to teams high on extraversion. Their study, which used polynomial regression, included both MBA students and manufacturing teams and the hypothesis was supported across both samples. The authors further found that "individual team members who are more attracted to their teams are viewed by others as contributing more to the team than those who are less attracted to their teams" (Kristof-Brown, Barrick, et al., 2005, p. 950).

Person-group fit has therefore been studied in different ways: whereas Kristof-Brown et al (2005) studied complementary fit in terms of personality, Ferris et al (1985) and Barsade et al (2000) studied personality congruence. DeRue and Morgeson also focused on supplementary fit but specifically looked at values congruence in relation to what they termed person-team fit. The authors distinguished this from person-role fit which they defined in complementary terms as "the compatibility between an individual's personal characteristics and the features of his or her role within the team" (DeRue & Morgeson, 2007, p. 1242). This study, conducted with students, found that because values

are stable over time, so is person-team fit. However, the authors found that because individuals' roles develop over time, person-role fit is dynamic.

These very different studies, focusing on different aspects of how people fit with their groups of co-workers, show that this is a relatively new and upcoming area of research (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010) which is starting to show that the ways in which people fit with teams is important but that there is a lot yet to be understood as to the exact nature of PG fit or how it is perceived by people.

3.5.4 Dyadic Fit: Person-Supervisor and Person-Individual Fit

As well as fitting with the group, people can also fit with individuals at work, which could be a co-worker (e.g. Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996) or supervisor (e.g. Meglino, et al., 1989), although the fit between applicants and recruiters (e.g. Adkins, et al., 1994; Van Vianen, 2000) and mentors and mentees (e.g. Turban & Dougherty, 1994) has also been studied.

For example, Antonioni and Park (2001) undertook a study in an insurance company across a range of jobs and departments to investigate whether being similar in personality (using the Big Five personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1993)) to a peer at work was related to work behaviours and outcomes. The authors found that where dyads were similarly high on the conscientiousness and agreeableness personality traits they tended to perform better. However, they warned that such homogeneity may have a downside in that dyads high on agreeableness may come to premature decisions and that dyads high on conscientiousness may "delay in making timely decisions because of 'analysis paralysis'" (Antonioni & Park, 2001, p. 355).

Schaubroeck and Lam (2002) also focused on the similarity of personality traits between individuals and their peers and supervisors, particularly in relation to how similarity predicted whether individuals would be promoted. The authors found that where

individuals were similar to peers in highly individualistic cultures, they tended to be promoted whereas in highly collectivist cultures, people were promoted when they were similar in personality to their supervisor. Schaubroeck and Lam (2002) further found that being demographically different or similar to peers or supervisors had little influence on whether individuals were promoted or not.

Huang and Iun's (2006) similarly found that surface-level, demographic similarities (such as age, gender and race) between individuals and their supervisors had less impact on outcomes than deep-level similarities in values and personality. They studied growth-need strength (GNS), which is how achievement-orientated individuals are in the work context, and found that where supervisors and subordinates both had a high or low level of GNS, they were likely to feel positively about each other. However, where the two parties' GNS levels were dissimilar, individuals reported low levels of trust in their supervisor and supervisors reported that the subordinate had low levels of performance.

The similarity between individuals' and supervisors' or significant others' personality has therefore been a focus of PI and PS fit research but so too have studies of values congruence. Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins (1989) particularly studied the values congruence between workers and supervisors in large manufacturing organisations, finding that supervisors and workers who had similar values also reported high job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Although in this study most workers' values were congruent with their own supervisors' values, they did not match the overall, average values of all of the supervisors. Meglino and colleagues (1989) also found that the participants' values remained stable over time.

3.5.5 Person-Job Fit

Person-job fit is different to PV fit in that it focuses more specifically on the work and role that a person is carrying out rather than their vocation. PJ fit has been defined as

the fit between the abilities of a person and the demands of a job (i.e., demands-abilities) or the desires of a person and the attributes of a job (needs-supplies) (Edwards, 1991). PJ fit studies thus focus on how individuals' knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) meet organisational needs or how the organisation meets individuals' needs. In contrast to PO and PV fit studies which tend to centre on supplementary fit, the majority of PJ fit studies therefore consider the complementary fit between the individual and the job (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). In chapter 2 it was noted that matching individuals and jobs came to the fore in World War II (Schneider, 2007) and in section 3.2 it was shown that several studies have tested whether similar people are attracted and selected by organisations, as proposed by Schneider's (1987b) ASA theory.

Few studies consider PJ fit in isolation but rather tend to also take PO fit into account. Saks and Ashforth (1997) focused particularly on how job applicants form perceptions of both PJ and PO fit before, during and after the recruitment and selection process. In their longitudinal study the authors found that the amount of job information supplied by the organisation and the individuals' self esteem were positively related to PJ fit and that PJ fit, in turn, was positively related to job satisfaction, commitment and organisational identification but negatively related to stress and intention to quit. However, they found that "only P-O fit was related to actual turnover" (Saks & Ashforth, 1997, p. 417) and thus concluded that both forms of fit were important in recruitment and selection. In a subsequent longitudinal study of job search behaviour and its relationship to PO and PJ fit, Saks and Ashforth (2002) similarly found that both PO and PJ fit were important, but that the graduates in the study placed greater emphasis on PJ fit. The authors concluded that for graduates who are at the beginning of their career plans, they will more likely be thinking of the jobs that they want to do than the organisation that they wish to work for: "one will first decide to become a nurse before thinking about the hospital or other organization that one wants to work in" (Saks & Ashforth, 2002, p. 652).

This reflects Billsberry's (2007) finding that graduates apply for occupations rather than organisations.

O'Reilly et al (1991) similarly studied both PO and PJ fit using objective, indirect measures and found that there was low correlation between PO and PJ fit but because objective measures were used, this study did not address whether employees perceived PO and PJ fit as distinct. Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) followed up this study with a survey of 231 employees of a trucking company examining their perceptions of PO and PJ fit to find whether the two forms of fit uniquely influenced outcomes. They found that the two fit dimensions were only weakly correlated and, similar to Saks and Ashforth (1997), found that PO fit better predicted intentions to quit (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). This was further confirmed by Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson's (2005) meta analysis which found that PO and PJ fit were weakly related and especially so where indirect rather than direct measures were used.

Kristof-Brown, Jansen and Colbert's (2002) policy capturing study looked at the simultaneous effects of PO and PJ fit but also PG fit to assess how individuals integrate information relating to these three dimensions. This study was novel in that the authors used the critical incident technique developed by Flanagan (1954) with students who had work experience to ask them detailed information about their experiences of "good and bad PJ, PG and PO fit" (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2002, p. 987). These accounts were coded and developed into 30 scenarios of high, medium and low PJ, PG and PO fit. The scenarios were presented to 205 masters-level students of whom 92% had held full-time jobs and at the end of each scenario, each participant was asked to assess their satisfaction with the overall work environment. The authors were thus able to show how people integrate the three dimensions of fit and how each dimension added to the individual's satisfaction with the work environment. Kristof-Brown et al (2002, p. 991) found that "all three types of fit have important and independent effects on individuals' work satisfaction" and further noted that individuals' past work experience determined the dimension of fit that they

placed greater emphasis on. Those participants who had longer work experience placed more emphasis on PJ fit whereas the participants who had worked for a larger number of organisations saw PO fit as more important. This led Kristof-Brown et al (2002) to conclude that career stages and how people's careers change over time may play a role in determining which types of fit are important at different temporal stages. However, they acknowledged that as this research was conducted with students in an experimental setting, that "the next step is to move this research into a natural work environment to assess individuals' perceptions of various types of fit in contextually rich and potentially complex circumstances" (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2002, p. 992).

3.6 Multi-dimensional Fit

In their meta-analysis, Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman et al (2005) found that although many fit studies acknowledged that there were different dimensions of fit, that multi-dimensional fit research was called for. Additionally, they called for research to show "how various types of fit influence each other over time and how fit is influenced by family issues (e.g. Edwards & Rothbard, 1999)" and that "a better understanding of what it means to people to "fit" and the mechanisms that stimulate fit are long overdue" (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, et al., 2005, p. 321).

The call for multi-dimensional fit research was answered by a handful of researchers, including Jansen and Kristof-Brown, who noted that there has been a tendency in PE fit research "to examine the fit between an individual and a single aspect of the work environment" but pointed out that "in reality, however, people do not interact with only one part of their environment" (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006, p. 193). The authors proposed that PE fit is the sum of PV + PJ + PO + PG + PP fit (where PP fit is person-person fit and which thus covers any dyadic fit including person-individual and person-supervisor fit) suggesting that the extent to which an individual fits with his/her vocation, job, the organisation, the group in which they work and the people in the organisation adds

up to give an overall measure of the individual's fit with the environment. Their model of multi-dimensional fit is shown in figure 3.2. As shown in the diagram, Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) further refined the equation by incorporating salience: a measure of the relevance or importance of each of the dimensions of fit, as determined by an individual's personality and values or environmental differences such as the size and structure of the organisation as well as the strength of its culture (Schein, 1985).

In terms of personality, Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) drew on previous research by Barrick and Mount (1991) to suggest that individuals high on the 'agreeableness' personality dimension may accord PP and PG fit more salience because of their predisposition to think of others whilst those high on conscientiousness may find PJ and PV fit more salient because of their desire to perform well in their role. The authors further drew on research by Rokeach (1973) to suggest that individuals with high social values might give more import to those aspects of fit concerning people than those with high achievement values who may give prominence to job and vocation fit. In terms of the wider environment, Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) used the work of Schein (1985) to theorise that the size, structure and the organisational culture affect salience in that differences in these environmental features will often give salience to a particular fit dimension. For example, in a strong organisational culture, where employees share core values and have similar expectations which help to regulate how people behave (Luthans, 1995), this may give prominence to PO fit. However, in weak cultures, where the employees are less closely aligned to the overall mission of the organisation, there may be greater bureaucracy and subsequently, PG fit may be more salient.

However, the salience of each fit dimension was also said to depend on the stage of the employment relationship (drawing on Adkins, et al., 1994; Bretz, Rynes, & Gerhart, 1993; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). To reflect this, Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) further factored in the 'temporal stage' into their multidimensional theory of PE fit, suggesting that before joining an organisation (i.e. pre-employment), individuals may give greater

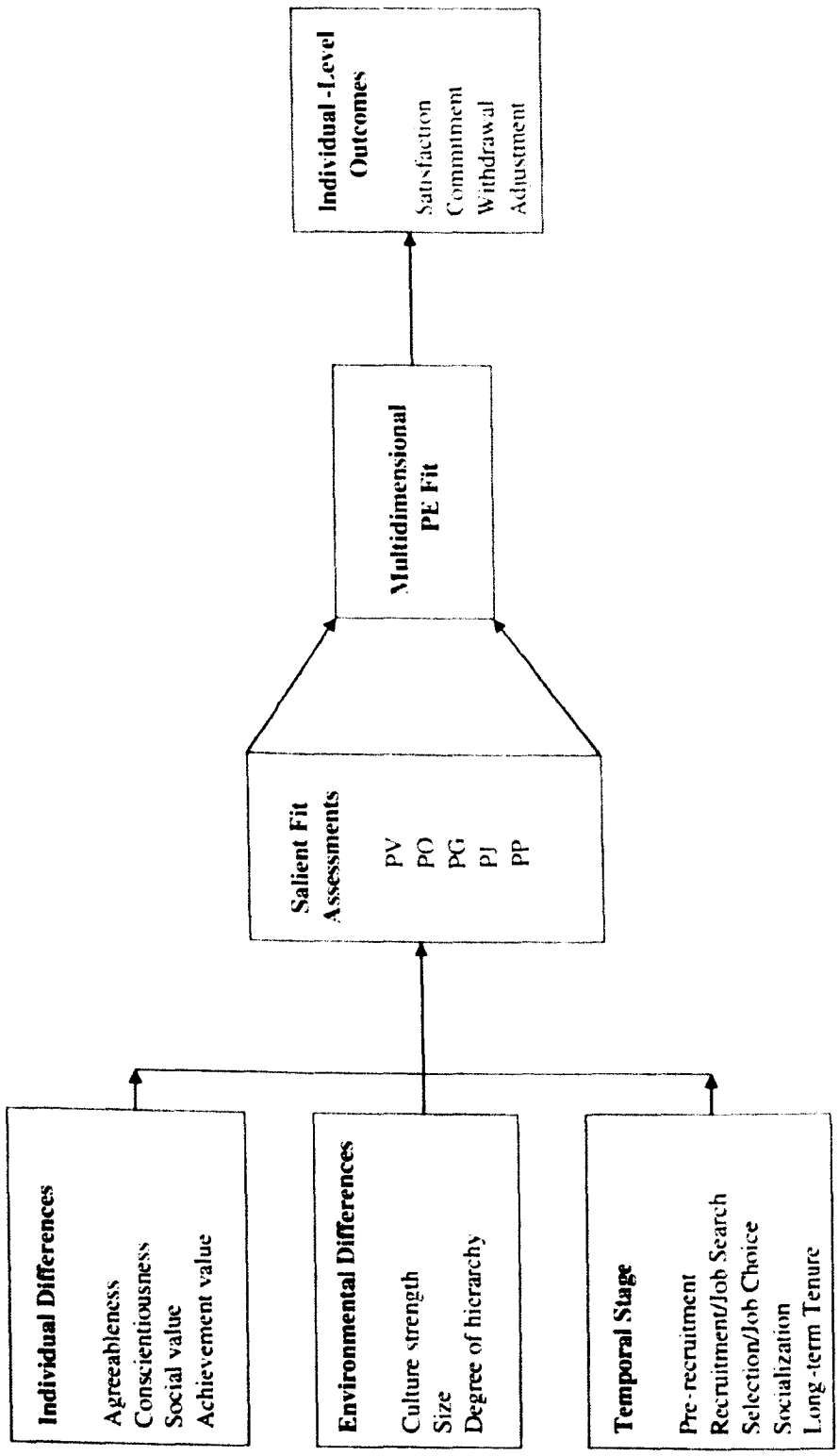


Figure 3.2 A Model of Multidimensional PE Fit

Source: Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006, p. 199)

salience to thinking about their fit with a vocation (PV fit) and job (PJ fit) than their fit with a particular group (PG fit). During the recruitment process, they might give more prominence to PI fit in considering their fit with organisational representatives and interviewers and PO fit in considering the organisational culture. In essence therefore, the

salience of the different fit dimensions was proposed to change as individuals progressed through the recruitment, selection, induction and socialization stages into a longer-term relationship with an organisation. This perspective on individuals' perceptions of fit at different stages of the employment relationship is particularly interesting in that it adds detail to Schneider's (1987b) ASA model. Although Schneider's work (Schneider, 1987a, 1987b; Schneider, et al., 1997) has been widely cited in relation to PE fit, it has not been wholly supported by empirical research findings. For example, as noted in section 3.2, Billsberry's (2007) study of the attraction element of the ASA framework found that despite organisations' efforts to recruit new employees who would fit with their values, graduate recruits tended to apply for vocations rather than organisations. It might be concluded that graduates are not so much interested in which organisation they work for but are instead highly conscious of and focused on entering the vocation of their choice. This finding chimes with Jansen and Kristof-Brown's (2006) proposition that different dimensions of fit will have different levels of salience for individuals at different times.

Jansen and Kristof-Brown's multidimensional PE fit theory was partially tested by Edwards and Billsberry (2010) who questioned whether people develop an overarching sense of fit through the dimensions of fit (PO, PJ, PG, PV etc) combining and the authors instead put forward a model where the fit dimensions – PO, PV, PJ PG, PP - separately predict outcomes, as shown in figure 3.3.

To test both models, the authors surveyed 1875 employees in the United States across a range of organisations using fit measures derived from two qualitative studies of employees' perceptions of PE fit (Billsberry, et al., 2008) as well as organisational commitment (Hult, 2005; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974), intention to leave (adapted from Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984) and job satisfaction (Nagy, 2002) measures. Edwards and Billsberry found that the data from their survey best fit the model where the dimensions of fit independently influenced outcomes and therefore suggested

that people do not have an overarching sense of fit but rather that fit perceptions relating to individuals' jobs, co-workers, vocations, groups and organisations are held separately.

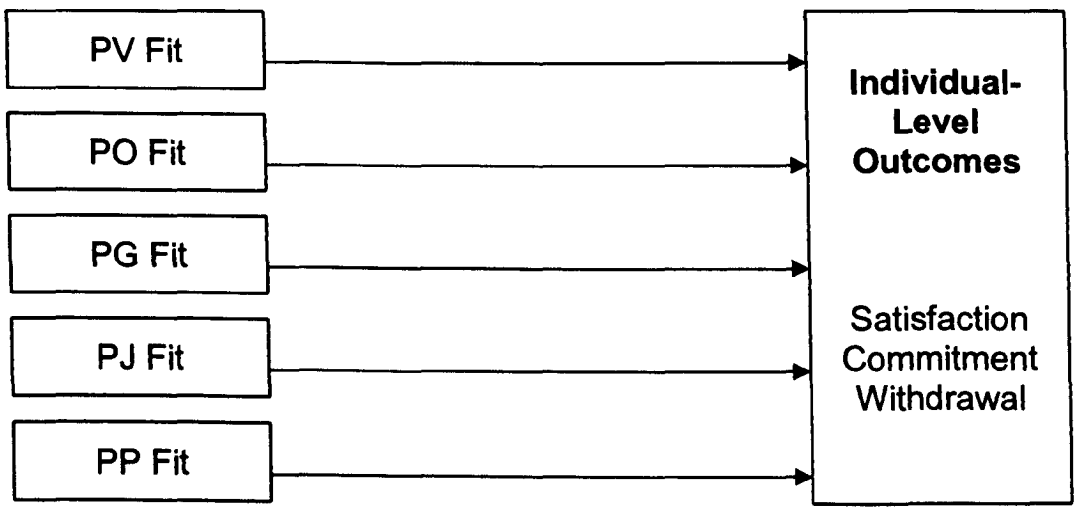


Figure 3.3 An alternative model of long-term tenure multidimensional fit assuming no overarching sense of fit

Source: Edwards and Billsberry (2010, p. 479)

Edwards and Billsberry (2010) however acknowledged that their study did not fully test all aspects of Jansen and Kristof-Brown's (2006) theoretical model, particularly because it was cross-sectional in design and surveyed employees who had been in work for at least one year, thus not testing how fit changes over time and at different stages of the employment relationship. Nevertheless, it does raise the question of how people conceptualise their fit and misfit with organisations and whether people have an overarching sense of fit or whether they think of their fit with their jobs, co-workers, vocation and their employing organisation separately.

Wheeler, Buckley, Halbesleben, Brouer and Ferris (2005) drew on Cable and Edwards' (2004) finding that both supplementary and complementary fit contribute independently to organisational identification and job satisfaction in their "integrative theory of multidimensional fit". The authors brought PO, PJ and PV fit together with

person-preference for culture (PP) fit (Van Vianen, 2000) and person-team fit (Hollenbeck, et al., 2002) in a model of multidimensional fit (MDF). Wheeler et al (2005) suggested that people consider each element of their fit with organisations independently, following the findings of Kristof-Brown et al (2002) discussed in section 3.5. The authors however expanded their theory by incorporating self-concept, prototype matching and social identity theories to explain not only how the dimensions of fit are related but also why individuals are motivated to fit.

Wheeler et al proposed that people's fit perceptions related to their self-concept: the way in which people see themselves across different situations. For example, one person may see herself as being easy going and fun loving in all situations whereas another person may see himself as easy going and fun loving when with his friends but as serious and responsible when with his colleagues (Donahue, Robins, Roberts, & John, 1993). Wheeler et al (2005) thus suggested that the different dimensions of fit may be linked to individuals' self concept, where PO fit is related to people's values, PJ fit relates to people's skills and abilities, PG fit is associated with people's relationships with others and PV fit relates to people's personalities. As people develop and gain experience and social circumstances change, so the way in which they define themselves alters (Gergen, 1985).

The authors also suggested that prototype matching plays a role in fit perceptions. Prototype matching concerns the way in which people make sense of, and give meaning to, social situations (Krahé, 1992). As such, when individuals come across a new situation, they will try to categorise it according to what they already know (or have experienced) of similar situations. Cantor and her colleagues, who developed prototype matching, found "that people shared relatively orderly and easily retrievable prototypes" (Cantor, Mischel, & Schwartz, 1982, p. 45), allowing them to assess which types of people may typically be found in such situations. Wheeler et al (2005) therefore suggested that people use prototype matching when estimating whether or not they will fit in an environment.

The third element drawn into the MDF model was social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) which posits that people want to belong to a group, particularly a desirable group. This gives people an incentive to fit because "individuals need to fit with, and belong to, organizations because it boosts self-esteem (Wheeler, et al., 2005, p. 281).

Similar to Jansen and Kristof-Brown's multidimensional model of PE fit, Wheeler et al's (2005) MDF model reached beyond the immediate factors concerned with the person and the environment to suggest that other factors may influence or affect how individuals and organisations fit together to affect outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, turnover, absence and productivity. Both models propose that fit is not static but changes according to the employment stage that an individual has reached or the development of individuals' self-concept. Both models acknowledge the complexity of studying the fit between people and environments over time when each of the dimensions gains greater or lesser salience depending on individuals' circumstances.

However, the two multidimensional models are both theoretical and, with the exception of Edwards' and Billsberry's (2010) study, it is apparent that the idea that people's fit with organisations is multidimensional is based on sound empirical research, but there is, as yet, little evidence as to how people experience and assess their fit with different facets of the environment. Wheeler et al (2005), in noting directions for future research, suggest that individuals do not continually assess their fit but rather only assess whether they fit or misfit in response to specific incidents such as organisational change. Edwards and Billsberry (2010) similarly concluded that fit assessments are made at specific times (such as during the recruitment cycle, in line with Jansen and Kristof-Brown's (2006) temporal stages) but that "an overarching sense becomes relevant during employment when it is in the negative" (Edwards & Billsberry, 2010, p. 489) and they suggest that future research should focus on how multidimensional models apply to misfits.

3.7 Misfit

The preceding sections have discussed how the fit between people and their organisational environments has been conceptualised, measured and delineated into dimensions of fit. It has been shown that PE fit is generally assumed to have positive outcomes (Edwards & Shipp, 2007) such as job satisfaction and commitment. Occasional reference has been made to misfit. For example, Schneider (1987b), in his ASA model, theorised that people who misfit would leave an organisation and that having employees who are not similar to others in the organisation may have organisational (if not individual) benefits as it may avoid group-think and the inability to adapt to new situations (Schneider, et al., 1997).

In section 3.4 on the measurement of fit, it was noted that in the supplementary conceptualisation of PE fit, misfit occurs where commensurate measures of the individual and the environment do not match. As Edwards (2008, p. 219) notes "If the person and the environment are at the same level, whether they are low, medium or high, then by definition, P-E fit exists. If the person and environment are at different levels, then P-E misfit exists, with the direction of misfit indicated by the relative levels of the person and environment." This simple formula is complicated by empirical studies firstly showing that exact correspondence does not necessarily lead to the maximisation of positive outcomes (see Edwards & Cable, 2009) and secondly, that complementary fit, which does not rely on exact matching of the person and environment, operates at the same time as supplementary fit and the two forms of fit are interrelated (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Edwards, 2004). There is therefore some doubt as to exactly what constitutes fit, but there is even greater ambiguity as to how misfit may be conceptualised.

In this section, ideas as to what constitutes misfit are discussed. As noted in the introduction, misfit is known to be important because it can have negative outcomes at the individual level, causing people to leave their jobs (Schneider, 1987b) or as Chatman, Wong and Joyce (2008, p. 64) note, "because a lack of congruence is aversive, 'misfits' are

unlikely to remain with the organisation." Misfit is also linked to employees experiencing stress (see Edwards & Shipp, 2007) and, as Schneider (1987b) theorised, misfit may additionally have organisation-level effects for example, by preventing the stagnation that could occur by increased organisational homogeneity.

In the past five years it has been recognised that how and why individuals and organisations misfit is little understood. Wheeler et al (2005) identified misfit as an area for future research and although they did not build the concept of misfit into their MDF model, they nevertheless outlined a proposed process of misfit. Organizational changes or 'shocks', the authors argued, induce individuals to re-assess whether they still fit within the organization. If they perceive that they do not fit, individuals will consider whether they were willing to adapt to the new situation. If they are unwilling to adapt, Wheeler et al (2005) suggested that misfits will appraise whether they can find alternative jobs and, if so, they will exit the organization as Schneider (1987b) forecast. However, in the event that individuals perceive there to be no viable alternative to their current job, they will do nothing (inaction), express their concerns (voice) or pretend that they fit by putting up a façade (impression management).

This theory was partially tested in Wheeler, Coleman-Gallagher, Brouer and Sablynski's (2007) study where they conducted a web-based survey of 205 predominantly white employees. Noting previous studies' empirical findings of a weak relationship between PO fit and turnover (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, et al., 2005; Verquer, et al., 2003), Wheeler et al (2007, p. 208) raised the question "why do poor-fitting and dissatisfied employees remain with the organization?" when this contradicts Schneider's (1987b) theory that misfits leave. Looking at the relationship between PO fit, job satisfaction and turnover, Wheeler et al (2007) found that it was not necessarily poor PO fit or job dissatisfaction which lead to turnover but rather it was whether or not there were other job opportunities open to people who felt that they did not fit.

Wheeler et al's (2005; Wheeler, et al., 2007) work was based on unfolding model of voluntary turnover (UMVT) which may give insight into why misfits do not leave organisations. The unfolding model of voluntary turnover was developed by Lee and Mitchell (1994) and has been tested and refined by subsequent empirical studies (Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999; Mitchell & Lee, 2001). This model suggests that individuals leave organisations as a result of shocks which can be 1) expected or unexpected, 2) positive or negative or 3) personal or organisational (Lee, et al., 1999, p. 454). Maertz and Griffeth (2004) similarly painted a complex picture of why people choose to leave organisations, suggesting that there are eight motivational "forces" driving people's decision making. These forces include normative forces (e.g. family members' expectations), contractual forces and moral/ethical forces and the proposed conceptual framework thus recognises that people are influenced not only by their own values but also by factors in the organisation and the wider environment.

The recognition of the complexity of the turnover process has led to a further avenue of research which argues that individuals are 'embedded' in their jobs and/or organisations (Mitchell, et al., 2001). This theory is of interest because it subsumes PE fit into the broader job embeddedness construct. Mitchell et al (2001) likened embeddedness to a web in which individuals are caught which stop them leaving an organisation. The authors suggested that the core elements of job embeddedness are "individuals' (1) links to other people, teams, and groups, (2) perceptions of their fit with job, organization, and community, and (3) what they say they would have to sacrifice if they left their jobs" (Mitchell, et al., 2001, p. 1102). This is not a PE fit model per se, but it suggests that the strength of the links that people (perceive to) have to their job, colleagues, the organisation, family and the wider community influences their decision whether to stay in their job or leave. A shock may cause them to reassess their employment situation.

Wheeler et al's (2005) proposition that changes or shocks can affect fit perceptions was borne out by Bittel and Ramsey's (1983a, 1983b) studies. The authors reported on

data gathered by the National Survey of Supervisory Management Practices who surveyed 7000 supervisors from 116 organisations. The survey, conducted over a 9 month period, involved administering a 16 page, 150 item questionnaire and found that, of the managers who had been promoted from the 'employee ranks' to supervisor status, one-in-five had negative attitudes and felt that they were a misfit.

In a similar vein, Blenkinsopp and Zdunczyk (2005) conducted an exploratory, retrospective study of misfit managers. Using in-depth interviews based on critical incident techniques, they studied managers who perceived themselves as misfits after making mid-career role transitions and found that in these situations, there was a mismatch between the individuals' expectations and the reality of the job. Managers revealed that their expectations were based on assumptions and inference rather than the facts and information provided by the employer. For example, one participant had inferred from the slickness of the recruitment and selection process that the whole organisation was well managed. These studies not only indicate that misfits do not necessarily leave organisations but also that individuals can move from perceiving that they fit into a state of misfit, as suggested by the temporal aspect of Jansen and Kristof-Brown's (2006) multidimensional fit model.

A few studies of misfit have focused on environmental factors and triggers, yet another field of research looks at the individual and how their demographic attributes and characteristics (e.g. gender, race, age) affect their performance and attitudes at work (Elfenbein and O'Reilly, 2007). Relational demography research has gained prominence as pressure for equal opportunities and organisational diversity has grown by addressing whether having a diverse workforce makes any impact on the work environment and organisational performance.

Tsui, Egan and O'Reilly (1992) in their empirical study of the effects of demographic variables on psychological commitment, absence and intention to stay with an organisation drew on self categorization theory (Haslam, Powell, & Turner, 2000). Self

categorization theory contends that individuals classify themselves on the basis of characteristics such as their race, age, gender or their organisational membership for example. In this way, people will identify with certain groups: the in-group, seeing non-group members as the out-group. Individuals thus may categorize themselves according to their gender, role, profession, tenure or even identify with the wider organisation (Tsui, et al., 1992). In this way, if an individual categorises herself according to her educational background, she will be most satisfied in an organisation that is made up of similarly educated people. Likewise, if a person categorizes himself according to his age, how satisfied he is will depend on whether colleagues fall within a similar age band. This study found that, on the whole, "people prefer to be with similar others" (Tsui, et al., 1992, p. 574) although "for women, increasing differences in sex from others in the unit is associated with higher levels of organizational attachment" (Tsui, et al., 1992, p. 569). Misfitting in terms of demographic profile may therefore lessen individuals' organisational commitment, but it depends on how those individuals categorize themselves.

A more recent longitudinal study by Elfenbein and O'Reilly (2007) recognised that the PE fit literature and relational demography research had important linkages but that no studies had used both approaches simultaneously. Looking at 114 individuals in 16 teams, the authors focused on team members' fit with the organisational culture, measuring this with an adapted version of O'Reilly et al's (1991) OCP instrument. The participants' sex, race and socioeconomic background were also assessed to gauge how similar or different each person was to others in the group. Performance ratings were given to each of the participants by supervisors and peers and these ratings, together with retention figures were used as the study's dependent variables. Overall, Elfenbein and O'Reilly (2007) found that an individual's fit with the organisation's culture better predicted how supervisors and peers rated performance than did their demographic characteristics. Notably, the authors reported others' perceptions of performance rather than individuals' perceptions of fit after 10 months, and suggest that it may be the case that although individuals may have initial

perceptions and social categorizations, as time goes on, team members get to know more about each others' underlying values.

In relation to whether demographic variables affected staff turnover, Sacco and Schmitt (2005) studied employees' demographic misfit as compared to their co-workers as a predictor of turnover risk and furthermore, looked at the relationship of these factors to the organisations' profitability. In this study, the researchers specifically focused on the demographic variables of race, age and sex to assess whether dissimilarity between co-workers would disrupt social relationships between individuals. Sacco and Schmitt (2005) found that there was a relationship between demographic misfit and turnover, i.e. where employees were not of a similar age, sex and race to their colleagues, they were more likely to leave in the early stages of the employment relationship compared to if they were more established, longer tenured employees.

A number of studies which have specifically addressed the subject of individuals' misfit with organisations have therefore done so from a demographic differences perspective. These studies have found that demographic differences tend to be at the surface-level and so although people may be aware that they are different in terms of gender or race for example, this is different to the deeper-level fit as confirmed by Jackson and Chung (2008) who argued that both are important but different.

The limited research on misfit also suggests that people who misfit in the organisation not only stay, but that misfitting may also lead to adverse outcomes. In a study by Billsberry and colleagues, they identified that misfits stayed, "acting as centres of rebellion, disaffection and malcontent" (Billsberry, Ambrosini, Marsh, et al., 2005, p. 12).

Further, misfit may also lead to dissatisfaction as shown by Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2005) who studied the effects of employees being in and out of 'sync' with the general pace of their work environment. They found that those individuals who kept pace with their co-workers tended to experience greater satisfaction and display more helping

behaviours. A mismatch between the individual's pace and the hurriedness of the group resulted in lower levels of satisfaction.

People who misfit could therefore potentially be disruptive to organisations and may experience low levels of job satisfaction. However, as noted in the introduction to this chapter, perhaps the most studied consequence of misfit is stress in individuals. Le Fevre, Matheny and Kolt (2003), in their study of PE fit and organisational stress, found that the concept of 'eustress' (what has been commonly termed 'good' stress) was redundant and that being a misfit increased stress levels, resulting in physiological or psychological symptoms. The authors asserted that "Good P-E Fit may .... confer positive health benefits." (Le Fevre, et al., 2003, p. 733) and misfits may employ coping or defence mechanisms in order to increase their fit.

Edwards and Shipp (2007) have shown that the misfit between the individuals' needs and what the environment supplies can lead to people experiencing stress, "such that stress exists when supplies fall short of the person's needs" (Edwards & Shipp, 2007, p. 226). However, McGrath's (1976) model of stress and performance posits that stress results from an imbalance between what the organisation demands and what the individual is able to contribute in terms of their abilities. Stress, in the PE fit view, therefore results when there is a lack of complementary fit, particularly demands-ability or needs-supply fit, between the individual and the organisation (Edwards, 2008).

What has been shown to date therefore is that people may erroneously join organisations where they do not fit and then leave when their misfit becomes apparent (Schneider, 1987b) but empirical studies have shed doubt on whether all misfits leave (e.g. Wheeler, et al., 2007). It has been suggested that changes in the organisation cause individuals to reappraise whether they fit (Wheeler, et al., 2005) but there is no empirical evidence to show what causes people to misfit. Misfit has been shown to result in stress (see Edwards, 2008) and low levels of job satisfaction (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2005)

which suggests that misfit is a negative state and thus to be avoided, at least from the individual's perspective.

However, compared to the extensive work that has gone into clarifying the conceptualisation of PE fit, little is known about misfit. Misfit is generally assumed to be a lack of fit, where P is not equal to E (Harrison, 2007). It is known however, that sometimes, the optimum affective outcomes result where there is not an exact congruence between the P and E variables (Edwards & Cable, 2009), for example where what is supplied by the organisation exceeds what the individual needs. How misfit can be conceptualised is therefore unclear. It is possible that misfit may be the opposite to fit and that there is a scale with perfect fit at one end and misfit at the other.

Billsberry et al (2006) suggest however that misfit is not the polar opposite to fit and they argue that it is not necessarily the case that when the factors which cause fit are absent, misfit occurs. However, the authors acknowledge that this is a topic which has been under-researched and that "at present we know very little about the process of becoming a misfit" (Billsberry, et al., 2006, p. 12). Wheeler et al (2007, p. 215) concur, recognizing that "the area of misfit is wide open to researchers" and Kristof-Brown and Guay (2010) also propose misfit as a rich area for PE fit research.

3.8 Conclusion

Twenty years ago Rynes and Gerhart (1990, p. 14) noted that fit was "an elusive construct". This chapter has shown that there have been a considerable number of studies over the past two decades to explicate what fit is, how it can best be measured and how it relates to both individual and organisational outcomes. The studies have been wide ranging, so much so that Harrison (2007, p. 389) notes, "There is direct and indirect assessment of perceived and actual fit. Fit comes in supplementary or complementary flavors... Fit can be similarity, congruence, alignment, agreement, composition, compilation, configuration, matching and interactionist." This lack of consensus means

that there is no readily available, universally accepted definition of fit or misfit, let alone a generally accepted research method for studying it.

Despite the fact that there have been many differing approaches to the measurement and conceptualisation of fit, the majority of studies have approached the subject from a positivist epistemological stance (Billsberry, Ambrosini, Moss-Jones, & Marsh, 2005) where the researcher remains neutral whilst testing theories and hypotheses on large samples with the aim of generating generalizable findings (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002). Measures have been taken from relevant literatures, for example of values (e.g. Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990), personality (e.g. Costa & McCrae, 1993) and motivation (e.g. Alderfer, 1972) and have applied these to study the fit of people and organisations. However, there has been a scarcity of studies exploring how employees experience fit (Billsberry, Ambrosini, Moss-Jones, et al., 2005). The various studies that have been conducted have used measures of values (e.g. Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996; Meglino, et al., 1989; O'Reilly, et al., 1991), job characteristics (e.g. Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990) or self-reported overall perceptions of fit (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006, 2007), that have either drawn content from analyses of corporate environments or which collapse the individual's fit into one variable. Consequently, "knowledge of how employees experience fit is incomplete" (Piasentin & Chapman, 2007, p. 341).

The discussion on the ways in which the fit between a person and the organisational environment can be measured indicates that 'actual' and 'perceived' fit are two main distinctions in the field. Arguably however, all fit research depends on perceptions: either the individual's perception of his/her fit to the environment or separate assessments of the person's own attributes compared to others' perceptions of organisational attributes. The tools and techniques used to measure fit have been shown to vary and although different quantitative techniques have been used to model the fit between people and their working environments in relation to outcomes, qualitative methods have tended to be overlooked (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010).

The different dimensions of fit, such as PO, PJ and PG fit have been studied in some depth and it has been found that "different types and modes of fit are relatively independent and differentially related to outcomes" (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007, p. 49). Kristof (1996, p. 9) further noted that "although various aspects of the environment may be interrelated, there is conceptual and empirical support for the distinction between P-O fit and other types of congruence". Ostroff and Schulte (2007) noted that the findings from studies such as Kristof-Brown, Jansen and Colbert's (2002) research suggest that different types of fit may vary between individuals and that this "suggests that not only do multiple types and modes of fit need to be considered simultaneously but also that more idiographic analyses ... are needed" (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007, p. 46).

These main findings from the literature show that there are various avenues open to future research, but the main question which this research will address will be to better understand misfit, particularly, whether misfit is the polar opposite to fit. In doing so, the research will seek to find the similarities and differences between fit and misfit, and whether the existing dimensions of PE fit (i.e. PO, PJ, PV, PS, PI, PG) explain fit and misfit as experienced by employees. This leads to the research questions and propositions set out below.

3.9 Research questions

The research questions for this study are:

- What are the differences and similarities between person-environment fit and misfit?
- To what extent do the extant terms in the literature explain fit and misfit?
- Is misfit the polar opposite to fit?

and the following propositions will be tested:

P1 People's perceptions of fit and misfit will show that the dimensions of PE fit are independent.

P2a Participants will perceive PE fit positively

P2b Participants will perceive PE misfit negatively

P3 Fit and misfit are multidimensional, i.e. they are caused by multiple PE dimensions

P4 Fit and misfit are caused by the same dimensions of PE fit:

- P4a Person-Organisation Fit
- P4b Person-Job Fit
- P4c Person-Vocation Fit
- P4d Person-Supervisor Fit
- P4e Person-Group Fit
- P4f Person-Individual Fit

The next chapter shows the methods used to study the differences and similarities between people's fit and misfit perceptions and argues that qualitative methods are particularly apposite for capturing and understanding misfit as there has been little focus on this concept to date.

Chapter 4: Methods & Ethics

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed the person-environment fit (PE fit) literature and showed that there is a gap in knowledge regarding people's misfit in organisations and that ambiguity surrounds PE fit's conceptualization. Despite a lack of empirical data, misfit has tended to be expressed as the opposite to fit and the study reported in this thesis explores whether this is the case. A number of research propositions were put forward on the basis of the literature review to explore the differences and similarities between PE fit and misfit.

In this chapter, it is argued that because there is no existing conceptualisation of misfit, exploratory research is called for and that causal mapping is particularly apposite for capturing the complexity of fit and misfit perceptions. This is because asking people about the antecedents of their fit and misfit is essentially a causal question and one which focuses on their cognition. In addition, fit is known to be complex and multi-dimensional and causal mapping is an appropriate technique for showing the relationships (or not) between these different facets of fit.

There are different techniques for generating and analysing causal maps depending on the purpose of the study and its epistemological underpinnings. Idiographic and nomothetic approaches are discussed and it is concluded that because there is little knowledge about individuals' misfit perceptions, idiographic methods are called for. The causal maps for this study were generated idiographically but coded using measures from the PE fit, organisational demography and job embeddedness literatures. The study's participants, the sampling rationale and the steps taken to ensure participants were ethically treated are discussed in this chapter which ends with a description of how the coding schedule was derived and the way in which the data were coded.

4.2 Epistemology

Epistemology refers to the "general set of assumptions about the best ways of inquiring into the nature of the world" (Easterby-Smith et al, 2002, p. 31) and addresses fundamental philosophical assumptions that are taken about knowledge acquired through research (Crotty, 1998, p. 8). There are several disparate epistemological positions that can be taken, each differently viewing what can be said to be 'known'. For example, one position that may be taken is that things exist as an objective reality whether people know about them or not. In this positivist view, people can acquire knowledge about factual, objective aspects of the world around them. Because there is an objective reality, when research is conducted, the aim is acquire knowledge about the subject to arrive at the truth (Stainton-Rogers, 2006).

Epistemic relativism takes a different position, rejecting the view that it is possible to take an objective view and rather, suggests that it is possible to take different perspectives on a situation. Subjective relativists argue that there is no one correct way of viewing a situation whereas pluralist relativists contend that there is more than one correct perspective (Luper, 2004). Fundamental to this view is the rationale that individuals come from different backgrounds, speak different languages and their differing histories and cultures meant that they have "diverse ways of knowing, distinguishable sets of meaning [and] separate realities" (Crotty, 1998, p. 64).

A third, contrasting, epistemological position is constructionism where knowledge is not viewed as an objective reality but rather is considered to be constructed by people (Stainton-Rogers, 2006). Research undertaken from this epistemological position does not seek to identify a universal truth or law that is applicable to entire populations but strives to understand the differing ways in which people construct meaning and make sense of the world. This view suggests that there are multiple ways of viewing situations and thus multiple ways of knowing.

There are very few PE fit research studies that explicitly address what epistemological position has been taken (although some exceptions are noted below). However, the research methods employed for organisational fit studies and the ways in which the results are interpreted tends to be explicit and detailed from which it is possible to gain an insight into the philosophical position taken. Easterby-Smith and colleagues (2002) identified some key distinctions between positivist, relativist and social constructionist epistemologies. They noted that positivist research seeks to identify causality between research variables gathered from large numbers of randomly sampled participants across a range of situations in order to test hypotheses. In relativist studies, multiple perspectives are taken, drawn from large samples to gain data from several different perspectives. Social constructionist studies, on the other hand, focus on increasing understanding of the situation and to do so, seek to gather in-depth, rich data from a relatively small number of participants. Using information about sample size, methods used, hypotheses and the type of data gathered, it is possible to infer the underlying epistemological stance taken.

Meta-analyses of PE fit research (Verquer et al, 2003; Arthur et al, 2006; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010) show that researchers have investigated organisational fit from a number of different angles, studying subjective fit as opposed to objective fit; recruiters', job applicants' and employees' fit perceptions; supplementary and complementary fit; needs-supplies fit and demands-abilities fit to give some key examples. In section 3.4 it was noted that personality, values, knowledge, skills and abilities have been used as measures for how well an individual fits with an employer. These different approaches reflect not only the distinct research questions addressed by PE fit studies but also the differing epistemological positions from which the research has been approached. The majority of organisational fit studies have to date had an underpinning positivist stance (e.g. Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Judge & Cable, 1997), where the researcher remains neutral whilst testing theories and hypotheses on large samples with the aim of

generating generalizable findings (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002). Some studies, such as Kristof-Brown's (2000), take a relativist epistemological view, triangulating findings from both quantitative and qualitative studies. Very few, (an exception being Billsberry, Ambrosini, Marsh, Moss-Jones, & Van Meurs, 2005), seek to expose how fit is socially constructed.

As illustrated in chapter 3, there is some considerable debate in the PE fit literature as to how research to date has progressed understanding of the subject. Edwards (2008, p. 218) notes that "theoretical progress in P-E fit research during the past century has been meagre" and Judge acknowledges "a certain *methodological stalemate* in fit research" (2007, p. 419, emphasis in original). The positivist epistemological position from which the majority of studies have approached the study of PE fit "holds that there is a straightforward one-to-one relationship between things and events in the outside world and people's knowledge of them" (Stainton-Rogers, 2006, p. 80). As such, researchers have taken the view that it is possible to show the objective reality of how attributes held by an individual match those held by an organisation. This has led to a tendency towards theory-led research which, for example, suggests that optimal fit results from a match between the individual and the organisational environment and that this leads to positive affective outcomes (e.g. Chatman, 1991). Such studies are underpinned by the notion that "there is a straightforward relationship between the world (objects, events, phenomena) and our perception, and understanding, of it" (Willig, 2001, p. 3). However, as is pointed out in chapter 3, inconsistencies and contradictions in PE fit theory have been identified such as where the correspondence or matching of the person and environment does not lead to the maximisation of affective outcomes (Edwards & Cable, 2009). Additionally, it was noted in section 3.8 that all PE fit studies are dependent on people's perceptions of their, or others', match to or compatibility with the organisational environment. Meta-analyses of the organisational fit literature have reported that direct measures of perceived fit have stronger effects on affective outcomes than indirect, supposedly 'objective' measures

(Kristof-Brown et al, 2005; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). With perceived fit "the assessment is all done in the head of the respondents" (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005, p. 291) and the lack of clarity as to how organisational fit may be conceptualised, measured and delineated may be due to a lack of understanding of the cognitive processes that underpin the "in the head" fit assessments being made by individuals at work. It is argued here that approaching organisational fit research from a predominantly positivist epistemological viewpoint limits understanding of the person-environment relationship, in particular, precisely how and why people cognitively arrive at perceptions of organisational fit or misfit.

Taking a social constructivist view, where "the process of understanding is not automatically driven by the forces of nature, but is the result of an active, cooperative enterprise of persons in relationship" (Gergen, 1985, p. 267) gives a different perspective on fit research; one where fit is construed rather than existing as an objective reality. Individuals make sense of their experience at work and the ways in which they fit and misfit by sharing their thoughts and feelings through communication with others. One of the reasons that explanatory research, where the aim is to reduce the complexity of individuals' organisational fit to one, universal law, struggles to arrive at explanatory theory (Edwards, 2009), is because it is not possible to accommodate the complexity and detail of people's organisational fit experiences. Constructionist methods however, allow for explicatory research which "involves deliberately looking for 'the irritating little bits and bats that can not be neatly accommodated within pre-existing theoretical frameworks'" (Stainton-Rogers, 2006, p. 85). This study aims to shed light on employees' experience of fit and misfit without imposing pre-conceived frameworks. An interpretive approach is taken so that individuals' experience and how they perceive fit and misfit is the focus of attention (Locke & Golden-Biddle, 2002).

Idiographic causal mapping was considered to be a particularly appropriate tool for eliciting how individuals perceive the factors affecting their fit and misfit at work without

externally imposed boundaries or prompts. Although there is a clear distinction between idiographic and nomothetic research designs, it has been argued that idiographic studies can give rich insights to suggest what may be relevant not just to the individuals, but larger populations (e.g. Zevon & Tellegen, 1982). This study set out to gather in-depth, idiographic data from employees and to code the content using concepts from the literature, which were largely generated through nomothetic research methods. The imposition of a coding schedule (made up of concepts which were identified and refined through positivist, explanatory PE fit studies) onto idiographic causal map data allows for the identification of both those data that fall within existing theoretical frameworks but also those that fall without, "for they may well be the most valuable clues to solving the puzzle of what is going on" (Stainton-Rogers, 2006, p. 85).

4.3 Research Methods: Cognitive and Causal Maps

The methods used to study the dimensions of PE fit have varied greatly, including large scale surveys, case studies, critical incident technique, ipsative measures such as Q sorts (e.g. the OCP instrument developed by O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), polynomial regression studies (Edwards, 1993) and the repertory grid technique for example. Methods considered for this study included ethnographic observation, focus groups and interviews which would all have elicited relevant data. However, although participant observation would have generated rich data, there was also the risk that no 'misfits' were amongst the population being observed. Focus groups would have proved a time-efficient way of gathering data but because of the group setting, participants are afforded little or no confidentiality. Furthermore, the group setting can encourage individuals to conform to others' views, rather than expressing their own, which potentially leads to individuals giving socially desirable responses (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998).

An alternative method for exploring individuals' perceptions of misfit is cognitive mapping. A variant of this approach is causal mapping, often employed as a research

method in strategic management studies although it has been used, albeit infrequently, in relation to PE fit (e.g. Billsberry, Ambrosini, Moss-Jones, & Marsh, 2005). The use of idiographic causal mapping techniques means that the interviewees are not presented with pre-conceived ideas about fit, which contrasts sharply many of the nomothetic approaches used in fit research (e.g. O'Reilly, et al., 1991). Because there are different definitions of 'fit' and it may be something that individuals are not consciously aware of, using causal mapping allows "respondents to surface tacitly held thought processes in an explicit manner"(Billsberry, Ambrosini, Moss-Jones, et al., 2005, p. 560) without imposing the interviewer's preconceived ideas. Bryson, Ackerman, Eden and Finn (2004) contend that causal mapping helps people to clarify their thinking on complex matters, especially if negative emotions are making it difficult for the person to see the situation clearly.

Cognitive maps are "graphic representations that locate people in relation to their information environments" (Fiol & Huff, 1992, p. 267). As Eden (1992) points out, although the term may suggest that cognitive maps capture and represent how people think, cognitive maps may in reality show facets of individuals' thought patterns and as such, they are useful for understanding people's thoughts about a given topic at a particular point in time. Karl Weick (1995, p. 12) famously speculated that 'we do not know what we think until we hear what we say' illustrating that the process of speaking about a subject is important in individuals' cognition.

Causal maps are a form of cognitive map which particularly note the causal linkages between the different elements of individuals' thinking. Huff (1990, p. 28) notes that causal maps are perhaps the most commonly used form of mapping and that they are based on the notion that "in a world of incomplete data, individuals nonetheless make causal inferences that allow interpretation". Because this study asked individuals about the factors causing them to fit and misfit at work, the use of causal mapping is particularly apposite. Apart from allowing the exploration of the causes of fit and misfit, causal mapping is particularly helpful as a tool because it makes explicit how people think about

their fit and misfit at work and in doing so, they need to reflect on previous events as well as thinking to the future (Hodgkinson & Maule, 2002).

4.4 Idiographic and Nomothetic Generation of Causal Maps

Causal maps can be generated and analysed using various means, depending on the purpose and nature of the study and the epistemological approach taken. This section discusses idiographic and nomothetic approaches to generating and analysing causal maps and considers their relative merits in relation to the study of person-environment fit and misfit.

Idiographically generated maps are those which focus on an individual (or single group) and explore that person's thinking on a specific subject. An example is Cossette and Audet's (1992) study of Mr Brown, the owner of a lighting systems company, where the authors used in-depth interviews to build a map to gain a thorough understanding of how he conducted his business and his vision for it. Idiographic causal maps use the participant's own language, often through in-depth interviewing, rather than imposing or suggesting pre-conceived ideas or structures (Eden & Ackermann, 1998).

Using idiographic mapping is attractive as participants are given free rein in what they choose to speak about and their own words and means of expression are used. As such, participants are not restricted to speaking about set topics and, assuming that appropriate methods are used which allow this, participants may talk about issues which have not previously been considered in the literature and which they, not the researcher, see as being particularly salient. Actively encouraging people to speak in-depth and at length about their perceptions of a situation will generate a wealth of qualitative data but is likely to produce unstructured, 'messy' data which is not straightforward to analyse.

A nomothetic approach is one where the researcher is seeking to find what is "true in general" (Grice et al, 2006, p. 1192) for the population rather than focusing on the individual or group. Nomothetically generated maps are ones which show data for large

numbers of participants but as noted above, this is difficult to achieve if participants are permitted to use their own words and structure as they see fit. From a positivist perspective, it is also desirable to have a reasonably large sample in order to draw generalizable conclusions from a study. A truly nomothetic approach would "only capture the participants' beliefs about the cause-effect relationships among a predefined set of concepts" and are not likely to contain the views of all of the participants, instead being compiled from multiple sources including texts as well as interviews with experts and decision makers for example (Tegarden, Tegarden, & Sheetz, 2009, p. 543).

In the managerial and organisational cognition field (MOC) researchers have been striving for some time to build techniques that allow for the nomothetic generation and analysis of multiple causal maps (e.g. Langfield-Smith, 1992; Langfield-Smith & Wirth, 1992; Markóczy & Goldberg, 1995). Frustrated by the difficulty of combining idiographic maps and the "lack of techniques for systematically comparing causal maps in a way that uses all of the information contained in such a map" (Markóczy & Goldberg, 1995, p. 306), several researchers set out to develop methods and software that would permit such a comparison.

The method put forward by these researchers was to have a specified pool of constructs from which the participants could choose rather than allowing the idiographic generation of multiple constructs where the meaning of each could be ambiguous. This hybrid approach to map elicitation has nevertheless got more in common with nomothetic approaches. The pool of constructs can be generated either by using pilot studies or by methodically reviewing the literature. Participants are asked to choose a set number of constructs from the pool according to which they find most important or salient to the topic in question and they are then systematically asked to say whether or how each construct influences the others (Clarkson & Hodgkinson, 2005). This method is effective for use with large numbers of participants because it is possible to use statistical tests to analyse the maps.

4.5 Sampling

As Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 27) point out, "as much as you might want to, you cannot study everyone everywhere doing everything." It was therefore necessary to seek a range of individuals who would be willing to speak about their fit and misfit perceptions, acknowledging that the limitations of conducting an in-depth qualitative study would mean that the results would not be generalizable to the overall working population. In undertaking a quantitative study, it would be possible to sample individuals randomly in a large range of organisations. However, using random sampling in a qualitative study may mean that an unintentionally biased sample is derived and therefore purposive sampling is more appropriate (Miles & Huberman, 1994). With purposive sampling, participants are chosen according to their characteristics and experiences (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). As noted in chapter 3, Schneider (1987b) hypothesised that misfits leave organisations and Wheeler et al (2007) noted that misfits may be forced to stay in an organisation if no other job opportunities were open to them. It was considered, therefore, that basing the study in an area where unemployment was high may limit the range of reasons for people's fit and misfit at work (although arguably, it may be easier to find higher numbers of misfits).

The UK's level of unemployment in the 3 months to March 2008 was 5.2% (Office for National Statistics, 2008a) within which there was great variation between regions. For example, the highest rate of unemployment was to be found in Tower Hamlets (12.9%) and "the lowest unemployment rate in Great Britain [was] in Hart, Hampshire, West Oxfordshire, Mole Valley, Surrey and Ribble Valley, Lancashire at 2.5 per cent (Office for National Statistics, 2008b)". It was felt important to site the study in an area where there was low unemployment and ample opportunities for people to find alternative employment, so that they did not perceive their misfit to be caused by purely economic factors. According to the Milton Keynes Intelligence Observatory, Milton Keynes had an unemployment rate of just 2.3% in April 2008 (Milton Keynes Intelligence Observatory,

2008) and Milton Keynes, with its wide range of employers and low unemployment, was therefore considered as a particularly suitable area in which to base the research.

Consideration was also made to the types of organisations which should be sampled, taking account of employee turnover rates, to ensure that a suitable number of employees from both private and public companies were included in the sample. According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), the private sector's turnover rate was 22.6% in 2007 as compared with an average of 13.7% for the public sector. Within the private sector, "retailing, hotels, catering and leisure and ... other lower paid private sector services groups" had the highest levels of turnover (CIPD, 2007, p. 2).

Because it is clear that there are so many variables involved in PE fit, a 'multiple-case sampling' (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 29) approach was felt to be apposite for this study. It was also important to sample people from organisations with differing cultures and where different styles of management operated and, ideally, to interview individuals holding a wide range of different jobs and professions. Interviewing individuals in a range of occupations was considered particularly important following Satterwhite and colleagues' (2009) finding that individuals' personalities are more homogeneous within occupations, potentially leading to a narrow view of fit and misfit.

Initially, Open University alumni were contacted via the MBA electronic newsletter (circulated to approximately 15,000 Open University Business School alumni) but only two respondents came forward via this route. An advertisement was placed in a free Milton Keynes newspaper with a circulation of approximately 120,000 which elicited only one reply from a person who was not in employment and therefore ineligible to take part in the study. Finally, letters were posted to large private and public sector organisations in Milton Keynes and a presentation was made at the Milton Keynes Human Resources forum which garnered positive responses.

Three organisations agreed to participate in the study: one branch of a large, national retailer; the UK division of an international manufacturing company and a large public sector organisation. Meetings were held with each organisation to outline the nature of the research and its objectives and the way in which participants would be selected was discussed. It was agreed with each organisation that members of staff would be informed about the study (via electronic newsletters, notice boards and word of mouth), that volunteers were being sought and that people should not be induced or directed to participate. The information about the research circulated to members of staff gave the researcher's email address and telephone number so that individuals could make direct contact. Copies of the letter sent to organisations and the 'advertisement' circulated to members of staff are given in appendices 1 and 2.

4.5.1 Ethical Considerations

According to Buchanan, Boddy and McCalman (1988, p. 57), "the terms 'research' and 'interview' have strong negative connotations." Care was therefore be taken to make a friendly approach to reduce the chances of people refusing to take part, especially those unfamiliar and uncomfortable with the idea of taking part in research and interviews. However, this had to be balanced with the need to convey the purpose of the interviews clearly to participants. The British Psychological Society (BPS) Statement of Ethical Principles (1990) was used as a guide to ensure that:

- informed consent was gained,
- participants were in no way deceived,
- participants were informed of their right to withdraw,
- confidentiality was maintained,
- data were anonymised,
- participants' psychological wellbeing was not harmed.

The research was "consensual" (Sapsford, 1999, p. 40) in that people were able to choose whether or not they wished to take part in the study. A 'research agreement' (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2001) briefed the interviewees about the research in lay terms (see appendix 3) and informed them as to how the resulting data were to be used, assuring them of confidentiality and the anonymisation of data (Buchanan, et al., 1988).

The final consideration was that of researcher safety. Speaking to strangers, especially about an emotive topic such as their misfit, presents the potential problem of the researcher being faced by people angry about their situation and aggressive as a result. Interviews were necessarily carried out in private, but in locations sufficiently public so as to minimise security risks (e.g. University campus and on the organisations' premises). Additionally, the researcher informed colleagues where and when the interviews were taking place.

Ethical approval was sought and gained from the Open University ethics committee.

4.6 Data Collection

Data collection started in August 2008 and was completed in March 2009. Over this period, 38 people volunteered to take part in the research. Of these participants, two were OUBS alumni, one a member of the Milton Keynes HR forum, 15 were employed by the manufacturing organisation, 7 worked in retailing and the remaining 13 worked for a public sector organisation. Of the 38 people, 15 were male (39.5%) and 23 were female (60.5%). The shortest interview lasted 31 minutes and the longest interview lasted two hours and 17 minutes. The majority of interviews lasted about an hour.

4.6.1 Pre-Interview Process

As noted in section 4.5, information about the research study was circulated in the three organisations which agreed to take part where the researcher's details were given so that individuals could make contact if they were interested in participating. People made contact by telephone and email at which point they were told more about the purpose of the research and what their involvement would entail. Giving this information at such an early stage meant that individuals had time to consider whether they wished to be interviewed. Bell (2005, pp. 156 - 157) strongly advocates such an approach, saying that the consent form "should not be presented verbally at the start of an interview, but sent beforehand so that respondents have an opportunity to query the meaning and implications of any statements."

4.6.2 The Interview and Causal Mapping Process

When the participants volunteered to take part in the study, they were told that it would involve a one-to-one interview lasting approximately an hour during which time a causal map would be put together. The interviews were held in private so that the participants could speak freely without fear of being overheard. Each interview started with the researcher re-stating that participation was voluntary, that all data would be kept securely and that confidentiality would be maintained. All participants were asked to sign a consent form before the interview commenced. The first part of the consent form explained the research and reminded participants of their right to withdraw at any time. The second part of the form asked whether participants were additionally willing to consent to the digital audio recording of the interview. All participants agreed to this. A copy of the consent form is given in appendix 4.

Completing the consent form gave the opportunity at the beginning of the meeting for an informal conversation, often initiated by a remark made by the participant. For

example, in one case, when completing the date on the form, the participant remarked that it was less than a month until Christmas. In another case, the participant showed a picture of her baby and a conversation followed about children. These conversations helped to build rapport and gave the researcher the opportunity to show empathy and humour, thus making the interview situation less threatening and formal.

The researcher outlined the causal mapping process in very informal terms, avoiding the use of technical terms to endeavour to ensure that participants did not feel intimidated. The causal mapping exercise was performed by having a large, A1 piece of paper to which post-it notes were added with the participants' verbatim comments, gradually building up a map of how the various aspects of individuals' fit and misfit were connected. To explain this, the researcher said "this bit of paper is my high tech tool and I'll be writing down what you say on post-it notes and sticking it on here, trying to link things together to build up a picture." The participants were told that the causal map would be typed up and were asked if they would like to receive an electronic copy or a hard copy by post. The researcher took down the participants' details and explained that it would take some time before the map was sent to them. All but one of the participants asked to be sent a copy of their causal map.

The researcher wrote FIT and MISFIT some distance apart on the large piece of paper which was placed on the table. The researcher started the main part of the interview by saying "thinking about the things that make you fit or misfit at work, are there any things that immediately spring to mind?" A few of the participants asked whether there were any topics that the researcher particularly wanted them to speak about and one person asked what others had mentioned. To these points, the researcher answered that there were no right or wrong answers and that she was looking for *their* perceptions and that if they wanted to speak about the colour of the paint on the walls, that was fine if they perceived it as being relevant to their fit or misfit at work.

The researcher wrote down the main comments made by the participants verbatim on individual post-it notes, using participants' own language without correcting grammatical mistakes. The post-it notes were placed on the large sheet of paper and, by checking the relation to other comments (for example by asking "does this relate to X?"), causal chains and relationships between different points were established. Probing and clarification were used to better understand the points that the participants were making. One participant spoke about how his move from his previous employer to his current employer had impacted on his fit and he noted that although both organisations were in the same industry, his new job was different. The researcher asked "In what way would you say it was different?" Care was thus taken to encourage participants to fully explain their thinking without imposing the interviewer's own views. The interview format given in appendix 5 was used as a rough guide but the question format was not slavishly followed. This is because during the course of the interview most of the points (for example regarding personality and perceptions of fit and misfit in previous jobs) were addressed and therefore did not need to be returned to.

The fact that the researcher was writing down the interviewees' comments meant that there were purposeful silences. These were not uncomfortable because the researcher was actively writing and the participants were able to think about what they wanted to say and to look at the causal map to see which areas needed to be expanded or clarified. The interviewees were remarkably candid and open during the process, telling the researcher about all aspects of their lives, including illness, disability, the death of family members and their fears and concerns. This was possibly because the researcher had emphasised that complete confidentiality would be maintained before the meeting, at the beginning of the interview process and again on the consent form. The opportunity to speak purely about themselves – and to be actively listened to without being told that their views were invalid – was clearly cathartic for many participants and several commented at the end of the interview or in subsequent emails that they had enjoyed the process and that they had

benefitted from the opportunity to reflect on their fit and misfit perceptions. One participant told how he was unable to speak to his friends or family members about his feelings for fear of being seen as being weak as men, in his culture, needed to be strong breadwinners rather than having doubts about their position.

At the end of the interviews, participants were asked whether there were any points that were missing from their maps and whether there were any further points that they would like to add. In some cases this led to another conversation with new points being added and in other cases, new links were made to connect different points on the causal map. When it appeared that the participant had no more to add, the researcher summarised the main points on the map and asked whether these reflected the participant's perceptions.

Each interviewee was asked to answer a few short questions on a brief demographic questionnaire (see appendix 8) to give, for example, their gender, age band, job title and the number of years that they had been in work. The last question on this questionnaire asked the extent to which the individuals considered themselves to fit or misfit at work, having spent some time considering this during the interview.

The interview closed with the researcher thanking participants, reiterating that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time and that the causal maps and audio recordings would be safely and securely stored. Each person was given a pack which contained an information sheet outlining the research project (containing the researcher's contact details as well as senior academic colleagues' details in case of complaint), a leaflet about Open University courses, an information leaflet from 'City Counselling Centre', a drop-in counselling service which puts individuals in touch with a range of providers such as bereavement, marriage, eating disorder, women's aid and youth services (in case an issue had been raised where the individual would benefit from professional help) and a leaflet from NextStep, a DirectGov service giving advice on learning and work.

It became clear after a number of interviews that similar themes were repeatedly emerging and that theoretical saturation had been reached (Bachiochi & Weiner, 2004). Because a range of men and women from a range of different jobs and different industries had been interviewed and similar themes had emerged across these groupings, the interview process was closed after 38 interviews.

4.7 Post-Interview Process

Following the interviews, electronic forms of the causal maps were generated using Decision Explorer. This was a somewhat time consuming process especially for those maps with large numbers of concepts. The smallest maps had 30 concepts but the largest map had 103. The audio recordings were used to clarify any ambiguities on the maps, to ensure that the participants' views were accurately reflected by the map and that the researcher was not giving her own interpretation of what had been said.

The completed maps were sent to participants marked 'strictly private and confidential' and were accompanied by a covering letter thanking the person for taking part in the study and inviting him/her to contact the researcher if they had any queries or comments. None of the interviewees asked for any changes to be made to their causal maps. The people who replied stated that they were satisfied that the map captured what they had said and that they were happy to have taken part. A few of the participants wrote to say that since the interview, there had been further developments affecting their fit or misfit at work, reflecting the temporal nature of fit (Chatman, 1989; Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007; Sekiguchi, 2004).

An example causal map is shown in diagram 4.1 which has been based on an interview with an individual who was not part of this study and subsequently anonymised. Here it can be seen that the map has two 'head' concepts, FIT and MISFIT. They are called 'heads' because the chains of causes cited by the interviewee lead to one of these end points and the 'head' has no arrows leading out of it. Each of the nodes or snippets of

text contained in the boxes is known as a *construct* and the arrows leading in and/or out of the constructs are *links* (Clarkson & Hodgkinson, 2005). In Decision Explorer, constructs are referred to as concepts and therefore both terms are used.

At the origin of each causal chain is a construct with no links leading into it. These are known as *tail* constructs and are of interest because they can be viewed as being at the root of people's fit or misfit perceptions. In this example, there are eight tail constructs:

8 There is always something new

9 Right background and qualifications

17 Flexible working

30 People are scared to be honest

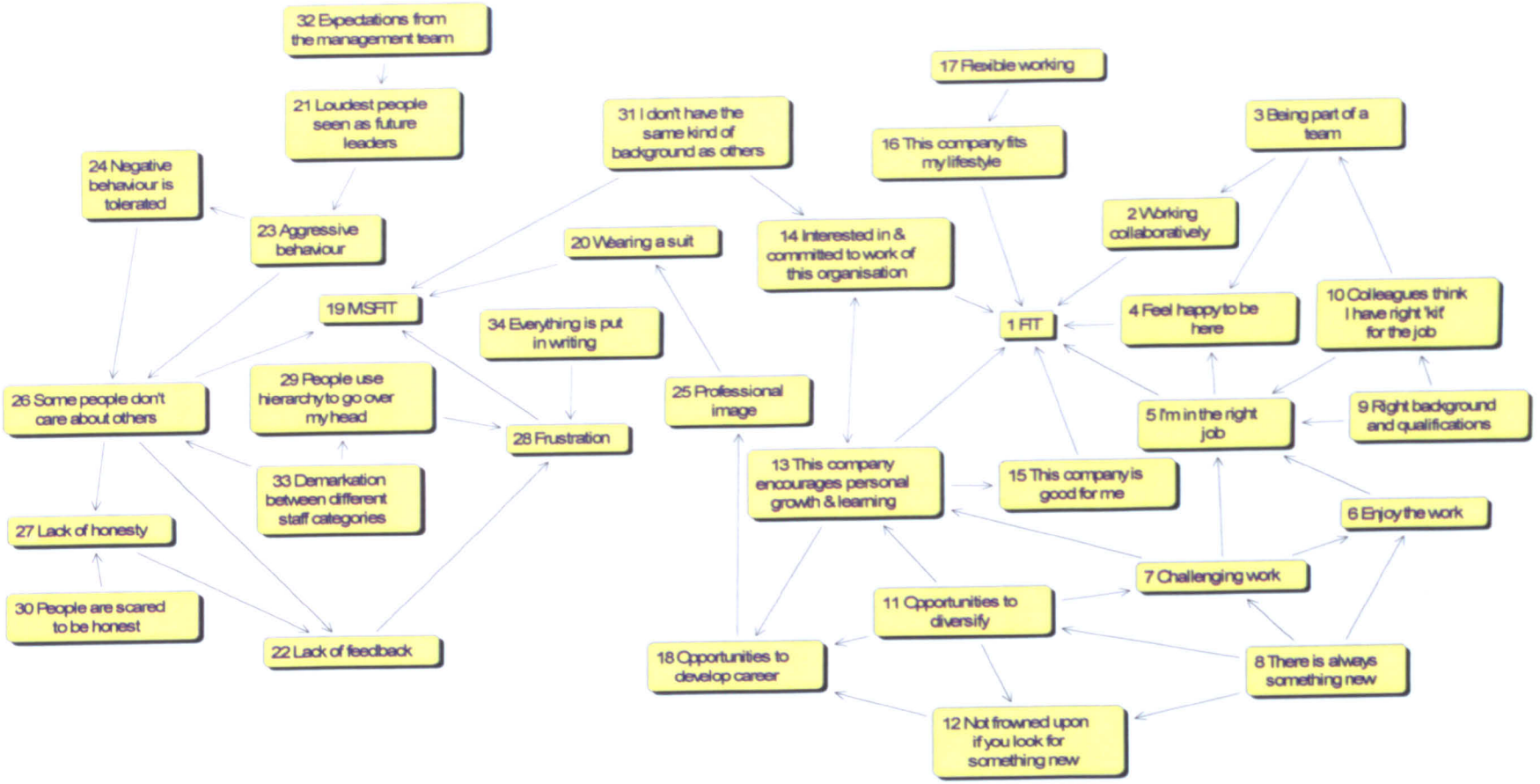
31 I don't have the same kind of background as others

32 Expectations from the management team

33 Demarcation between different staff categories

34 Everything is put in writing

Figure 4.1 Example Causal Map



4.8 The Coding Schedule

Causal maps can be analysed in two main ways: by their content and by their structure. Methods of analysis are fully explained in chapter 5, but this section explains how the coding schedule, used to analyse the maps' content, was derived.

The focus of this study was to gain a deep understanding of individuals' fit and misfit perceptions and to gain insight into the differences between them. To achieve this it would be possible to use content analysis or to take a grounded approach (looking for themes in the maps and then build up a schema of the patterns that emerge). Grounded theory is not however simply an analytical tool as it informs the whole research process from beginning to end, setting out on the task of gathering data without preconceived notions of what the expected outcome may be (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lee, Mitchell, & Sablynski, 1999; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). An alternative is to take a theory driven approach, taking what is known about the construct of person-environment fit from the literature and using this in analysing the data. A great deal was already known about the constituent parts of people's fit and its multidimensionality through empirical studies (see chapter 3) and it was therefore decided to derive a coding framework from the literature and to see whether and how this mapped onto people's idiographic accounts of fit and misfit.

In the literature review (chapter 3) it was argued that fit is multi-dimensional: a complex construct consisting of people's interaction with the organisation (PO), their job (PJ), their supervisor (PS), groups of co-workers (PG) and other individuals (PI) as well as their vocation (PV). The literature was scoured to find validated measures used to assess these dimensions of fit. It was found that there was no single study which used validated measures for *all* of the fit dimensions and further, that although studies assessing PO, PJ and PG fit were easy to find, far fewer studies focused on PV, PI and PS fit. Measures were therefore taken from several studies in a quest to capture a complete suite of fit measures.

Multi-dimensional fit studies were used as a starting point for identifying fit measures, in particular, those by Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006), Wheeler, Buckley, Halbesleben, Brouer and Ferris (2005), Edwards and Billsberry (2010), Vogel and Feldman (2009) and Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson's (2005) meta-analysis. Next, studies were sourced which studied particular facets of PE fit (e.g. Adkins, et al., 1994; Bright, 2007; Brown & Trevino, 2009; Cable & Judge, 1996; Graves & Powell, 1988, 1995; Kristof-Brown, et al., 2002; Kristof, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; Piasentin & Chapman, 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Van Vianen, 2000). Many other studies were perused which did not specify the measures that had been used. In addition to finding measures, definitions of the dimensions of fit were also identified. Each of the dimensions of fit is defined below together with summary of the items that have been used in studies and where appropriate, where these were derived. The full coding schedule is shown in appendix 6.

4.8.1 Person-Organisation Fit

An often used definition of PO fit is "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or c) both" (Kristof, 1996, pp. 4 - 5). This definition captures both the supplementary fit (how the person and environment are similar thus leading to fit) and complementary fit (the person and environment complement each other by one providing something that the other needs) conceptualisations put forward in the literature.

Both of these ways of viewing PO fit were captured on the coding schedule. For example, "my values match those of current employees in the organization" (Cable & Judge, 1996) and Vogel and Feldman's (2009) "my personal goals and the goals of my organization are very similar" (derived from Cable & DeRue, 2002) both address

supplementary fit. Complementary fit was captured by Piasentin and Chapman's (2007) items such as "I feel that I am important to this company because I have such different skills and abilities than my co-workers" and "even though my personality differs from my co-workers, it seems to complement their personalities".

4.8.2 Person-Job Fit

Person-job fit was defined on the coding schedule using a rich description by Kristof (1996, p. 8): "Person-job (P-J) fit was defined by Edwards (1991) as the fit between the abilities of a person and the demands of a job (i.e., demands-abilities) or the desires of a person and the attributes of a job (needs-supplies). Unfortunately, "job" is a term that has been loosely equated to environment in some fit research (e.g., Blau, 1987) causing some confusion about its domain. In this paper, a job is defined as the tasks a person is expected to accomplish in exchange for employment, as well as the characteristics of those tasks. Using this definition, P-J fit should be judged relative to the tasks performed, not the organization in which the job exists".

The types of PJ fit measures captured for the coding schedule covered needs-supply fit, for example, the extent to which the job fulfils an individual's needs (Saks & Ashforth, 1997) and demands-abilities fit, for example "my personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me" (Cable & DeRue, 2002) but individuals' personality in relation to the job was also covered by Lauver and Kristof-Brown's (2001) item "my personality is a good match for this job".

4.8.3 Person-Group Fit

PG fit "is defined as the compatibility between individuals and their work groups. The definition of work group, however, may range from a small group of immediate

coworkers to any identifiable sub-unit of an organization, such as a functional department or geographic division" (Kristof, 1996, p. 7).

Vogel and Feldman's (2009) items such as "I get along well with the people I work with on a day-to-day basis" and "there is not much conflict among members of my group" were judged to cover the definition of PG fit well.

4.8.4 Person-Vocation

On the coding schedule, PV fit was defined as "the similarity between an individual's personality and that of a vocational environment" (Kristof, 1996, p. 7).

Many empirical studies which focus on PV fit (e.g. Edwards & Billsberry, 2010; Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Wheeler, et al., 2005) return to classic work on vocational choice, in particular, Holland's (1985) seminal work as well as the work of Moos (1987) and Super (1953). Vogel and Feldman (2009) however developed new items including "my skills and abilities are well suited for the vocation (profession/trade) that I am currently in" and the reverse-scored item, "when I think about my interests, I sometimes wonder whether I chose the right occupation (profession/trade) after all" which were felt to encapsulate PV fit well.

4.8.5 Person-Supervisor Fit

Finding a definition of, or items to measure, PS fit proved to be difficult. Some studies (Edwards & Billsberry, 2010; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, et al., 2005) referred to Adkins, Russell and Werbel's (1994) and Van Vianen's (2000) studies, but as these focused on recruiters' and job-applicants' fit, their measures were not appropriate for coding data from established employees. Graves and Powell (1988, 1995) similarly studied the interaction of recruiters and applicants but the measures that they used were suitable to be adapted to apply more generally to supervisors and their subordinates. The

other items used for PS fit on the coding schedule were adapted from Brown and Treviño (2009) who, in their study of leader-follower values congruence, adapted Schwartz's (1996) measures of values to make them appropriate to the study of behaviour in organisations. The PS fit measures that resulted were: "my values are similar to those of my supervisor"; "my supervisor and I are alike" and "my supervisor and I complement each other well".

The definition of PS fit which was formulated following extensive reading and the failure to find an agreed upon definition in the literature was: "PS fit is the compatibility or fit between the employee and his/her supervisor/manager which may occur when there is a similarity between the two parties in terms of values, work style or personality or where the differences between the employee and supervisor are complementary (i.e. one party provides what the other needs)."

4.8.6 Person-Individual Fit

PI fit was, like PS fit, difficult to pin down. The work of Graves and Powell (1988) was adapted to arrive at the measures:

- I am similar to my colleague
- We share similar attitudes to work
- My colleague is a good person to work with
- My colleague has similar moral values to mine.

No definition of PI fit was found. A definition was therefore formulated for use on the coding schedule: 'person-individual fit is the fit between an employee and a co-worker (who is not his/her supervisor/manager) where the two parties are similar in their approach to work, values or personality or where the employee and co-worker complement each other.'

4.8.7 Additions to the Coding Schedule

The coding schedule initially included only the six dimensions of PE fit outlined above. As the interviews progressed however, it became apparent that individuals were speaking about matters which ranged more broadly than those covered by the PE fit items. For example, some participants mentioned their family lives, hobbies and other interests as factors affecting their fit at work.

It was therefore decided to add further items to the coding schedule: firstly, demographic factors such as age, tenure, gender and race (Jackson & Chung, 2008; Tsui, et al., 1992) and secondly, job embeddedness measures (Mitchell, et al., 2001). Job embeddedness (JE) has been defined as "an overall construct conceptualized as the combined forces that keep a person from leaving his or her job ... There are three dimensions to this construct: links, fit and sacrifice. Each dimension is related to both on and off-the-job situations, suggesting six separate factors that contribute to job embeddedness" (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablynski, 2004, p. 156). As is noted in the definition, people's fit with their employer as well as their community is a central aspect of JE but because it additionally incorporates measures relating to people's links to their communities, it broadened the coding schedule to consider areas outside of the organisational domain.

4.8.9 The Coding Process

The content of the 38 participants' causal maps was coded using the codes outlined in the sections above and shown in appendix 6. The 38 participants together generated a total of 2241 concepts on the causal maps. These were coded by a team of three coders: the researcher, a professor who had published numerous studies using causal mapping techniques and who was familiar with the PE fit literature and a post-graduate research student specialising in PE fit. One of the coding team was geographically distant from the

other two coders and it was therefore not possible to all meet together to discuss the process. Instead, notes were written (see appendix 7) describing the organisations that had taken part, outlining how the maps had been generated and giving guidance as to how the concepts should be coded.

In addition to the coding notes and the coding schedule, each coder was sent a folder which contained a copy of each participant's causal map, a list of the concepts from the causal chains leading to the 'Fit' head and a list of the concepts which the individual had mentioned in relation to their misfit at work. As a result, for each participant there was a table of the factors they had cited in relation to their fit at work and a separate table listing the factors which they perceived made them misfit at work. How the fit and misfit concepts were separated on the maps is detailed in chapter 5.

Despite best efforts to provide as much information as possible, the coding process was not immediately straightforward. It became apparent that trying to code lists of concepts divorced from their context on the causal map was not possible. The coders needed to understand the chains of events in order to know whether these related to the organisation, job, supervisor, group or other factors. In practice therefore, the coders referred to the causal maps and wrote the codes down on the tables of concepts provided.

The coding team exchanged emails at the outset of the process to clarify the number of codes being used (19) and whether the codes needed to be written on the maps or tables. The team also noted that not all of the concepts fell neatly into one of the coding categories and that there was some overlap between the codes, for example between the demographic code 'tenure' and the JE code 'links-organisation' which specifically refers to the length of time that an individual has worked in an organisation.

All of the coders found that coding the causal map content was difficult and slow at the outset due to lack of familiarity with the codes. After multiple coders have coded data, it should be possible to meet, discuss discrepancies and agree to re-code data or come to an agreement where there are disagreements (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This step was not

taken for this study. One of the coders had however left a large number of concepts uncoded, especially in the first few maps, and he was asked to look again to see whether, having completed become more familiar with the codes, he could code these. The level of agreement between the coders is reported in chapter 5.

4.9 Conclusion

The rationale for researching individuals' fit and misfit perceptions using idiographic causal mapping techniques was detailed in this chapter as was the way in which in-depth interviews with individuals led to the production of 38 causal maps. The face-to-face interview and causal mapping process was effective in that a wealth of data were generated and the participants found the experience positive and cathartic. In addition to this, the process of writing people's comments down and sticking them down for them to see meant firstly, that it was acceptable to have silences because there was a point of focus other than the two people in the room and secondly, people could see what they had already spoken about. This made it relatively straightforward for both the interviewer and interviewee to return to points raised earlier in the interview and expand further. Allowing the 38 participants to speak freely and widely about their fit and misfit perceptions generated a wealth of qualitative data and some complex causal maps. The process by which these were coded and the framework that was applied were outlined. Although coder agreement levels are discussed in detail in the next chapter, it should be noted that there was 59.1% agreement between all three coders and 32.3% agreement between two coders and therefore majority agreement was reached on 91.4% of the coding.

The next chapter discusses the theoretical background to the data analysis and shows the results of the coding and its analysis.

Chapter 5: Description of the Causal Map Data

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, research methods appropriate to the study of PE fit and misfit were described. The argument was put forward that idiographic causal mapping was a particularly suitable method for this study given that little is known about misfit and this method allows participants to speak about topics of their choice. How the causal maps were generated was covered as well as the way in which the three coders coded the content of the maps for the six dimensions of PE fit, the job embeddedness dimensions and demographic variables. Chapter 4 highlighted that amalgamating and comparing idiographic maps is notoriously difficult. This chapter moves on to describe the steps that were taken to analyse the causal maps.

The chapter is divided into 3 main sections. The first section deals with the theoretical approaches to data analysis (specifically inductive, deductive, retroductive and abductive approaches) and idiographic and nomothetic techniques for analysing causal maps. The second section is devoted to describing the series of steps that were taken with the coded data, how inter-rater reliability was calculated and how the various facets of the maps (such as the heads, tails, fit concepts and misfit concepts) were identified. The third section shows a series of frequency tables, detailing how often each of the codes was used for concepts in the causal chains leading to fit and misfit. These frequency tables are not used as definitive analyses of the data but rather point to those aspects of the qualitative data that are of interest (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Having 'sifted' the data, the chapter ends with some broad conclusions on which the finer analysis in chapter 6 builds. The first of these is that fit and misfit are not explained by demographic factors and that they are therefore psychological constructs. Secondly, the PE fit dimensions were the most frequently used codes, although out of the six dimensions, PO fit was used more frequently in relation to misfit and PJ fit more often

in relation to fit concepts. The job embeddedness dimensions were infrequently used compared to the PE fit codes but the data presented suggests that whether people fit at work may be, to some extent, dependent the number and strength of links that they have with others in their communities.

Section 1 Theoretical Basis for the Data Analysis

5.2 Inductive analysis

Inductive analysis is essentially about developing theories. Data are gathered and it is analysed to look for patterns and regularities (Blaikie, 2009) with the aim of being able to logically arrive at generally applicable theories or laws. Such theory can then be tested and confirmed using further studies. Inductive analysis therefore seeks to reduce the complexity of the data and to strip it down to the core. For example, Billsberry, Marsh and Moss-Jones' (2004) study mapped employees' perceptions of their fit at work and analysed these to look for common themes and patterns. The similarities between the participants' maps were extracted to arrive at an explanation or theory.

In an inductive based analysis, one way of analysing the causal map is to use thematic coding. Such coding involves identifying emergent classifications from the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In a study of management intuition, Clarke and Mackaness (2001, p. 156) used mapping techniques with three senior managers where they used interpretative coding to identify the themes emerging from the data as well as looking at the "broad structural features" of the maps. The coding, carried out by two researchers, identified those constructs common to all three managers, those which two managers mentioned and individual or 'intuitive' constructs. In their analysis, the authors rigorously examined both the complexity of the maps and their content, supporting this with numerous illustrative quotes. Clarke and Mackaness (2001) drew conclusions from their

study and put forward a number of propositions and hypotheses to be tested by subsequent research.

5.3 Deductive analysis

Deductive analysis, also known as hypothetico-deductivism, is driven by theory as opposed to the data being the starting point. Karl Popper argued that although theories and hypotheses could be derived from an inductive approach, to test these, deduction was essential. "From a new idea, put up tentatively, and not yet justified in any way – an anticipation, a hypothesis, a theoretical system, or what you will – conclusions are drawn by means of a logical deduction" (Popper, 1959, p. 9). Popper emphasised that in testing theories, "a positive decision can only temporarily support the theory for subsequent negative decisions may always overthrow it" (1959, p. 10). Using a classic example, it may be hypothesised by observing swans in Europe that all swans are white. Finding just one (Australian) swan who is black would falsify the theory.

Using deductive analysis in causal mapping studies involves coding the maps using categories argued for in the literature. In a PE fit study, it may be argued that there is substantial research theorising that fit is multidimensional (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, et al., 2005; Vogel & Feldman, 2009; Wheeler, et al., 2005) and that as such, the fit dimensions could be used to code the data. For a study focusing more specifically on one fit dimension, such as person-organisation fit, it may be reasonable to hypothesise that 'high' fit is caused by congruence between the individual's values and organisational values and that misfit would result from a lack of values congruence. Coding for specific values and testing whether the hypotheses are supported would therefore be a deductive approach to analysing the causal maps.

5.4 Retroductive and Abductive analysis

Retroductive research is about hypothic inference; it involves the 'creative' construction of hypotheses. Retroduction is a method attached to critical realism (Bhaskar, 1978). Instead of letting the coding emerge or using pre-determined coding, when using retroduction, the researcher creates hypotheses about mechanisms or structures that have not yet been observed and then analyses the data to see whether these mechanisms can be found to exist (Blaikie, 2003).

Abductive analysis is similar and the two terms – abduction and retroduction – have been used interchangeably. In abductive analysis, the researcher infers that there is a relationship in the data or information to hand even though this connection is not readily apparent. The researcher therefore uses his/her knowledge, instinct and experience in making inferences. According to Blaikie (2009, p. 92), abductive analysis has two stages: "- describing these [everyday] activities and meanings; and – deriving categories and concepts that can form the basis of an understanding of the problem at hand."

Retroductive and abductive analysis have not been explicitly employed in fit studies, but could be powerful tools. For example, in a causal mapping study of person-environment fit, if it was unexpectedly found that the people who feel that they misfit at work talk for twice as long as the people who say that they fit well, researchers may use their understanding of cognition to speculate that misfit are more conscious of the factors making them misfit at work than the people who fit well whose sense of fit is held at a less accessible, sub-conscious level (Billsberry, Ambrosini, Moss-Jones, et al., 2005) . Equally, the researchers could have a hunch that extroverts tend to be misfits and that extroverts have a tendency to talk far more than introverts. Either way, the "explanatory hypothesis" (Peirce in Niiniluoto, 1999) can be tested using deduction.

What is apparent is that, whatever analytical approach is used, scrutinising causal maps' content is appropriate in each case. "Content analysis refers to [a] means of summarizing, standardizing, and comparing...already existing data" (Smith, 1975, p.218),

the difference being that the summarizing is done on different basis according to the research approach that has been taken. The next section takes a more detailed look at the approaches that have been taken in analyzing causal maps particularly focusing on idiographic and nomothetic methods and the ways in which these can be combined.

5.5 The Analysis of Causal Maps

The analysis of causal maps tends to centre on two broad approaches: topological analysis and content analysis. The former assesses the features of the map (its nodes, links, heads, tails, loops, clusters etc.) whereas the latter devotes its attentions more to what is contained within the concepts on the map. Eden, Ackermann and Cropper (1992, p. 309), in a special issue of the Journal of Management Studies devoted to causal maps, outlined the methods that have been used in "the analysis of cause maps" and provided an overview of how a map's features can be analysed. The ratio of links to constructs is described as a means to finding some measure of the cognitive complexity of the maps; domain analysis assesses the number of in and out arrows for each of the map's concepts; nodes can be weighted according to their distance from the central node; ratios of head and tail concepts can be calculated; clusters can be analysed using the Jacard coefficient; the shape of the map may be studied and the number of causal loops can be analysed.

Montibeller and Belton (2006) focused specifically on causal maps used in decision making and outlined approaches that could be used to help the facilitator and participants decide on the best decision option. These methods focus on using the map as a means for systematically enabling the participants to move towards making a reasoned decision. Analyzing the structure and form of a map is a necessary step in gaining better perspective on the process, the relative centrality of features or their importance in relation to the subject under scrutiny. However, the content of the map - the narrative provided by the participants - is important to understanding individuals' perceptions of PE fit and how this

is analysed is discussed in relation to whether the maps have been generated idiographically or nomothetically.

As noted in chapter 4, an idiographic approach is one which concentrates on the analysis of a single person or a single group. Individuals' maps can either be analysed in isolation, i.e. drawing conclusions about just the individual, or nomothetically, deriving understanding of what holds true for larger groups or populations. Causal mapping has its roots in the inductive approach, gathering data to (literally) build up a picture which allows researchers to draw conclusions and theorise. However, over the past two decades researchers have sought to develop approaches which allow for the nomothetic analysis of maps. Conversely, in the person-environment fit field, the majority of the studies which have advanced understanding of fit have taken a nomothetic approach. As Babbie and Benaquisto (2010, p. 82) note "the nomothetic model of explanation ... is designed to discover those considerations that are most important in explaining general classes of actions or events" and this is where fit researchers have tended to focus their efforts. As noted in chapter 3, person-environment fit theorised to be multi-dimensional, intricate and temporal (e.g. Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Kristof-Brown, et al., 2002; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, et al., 2005; Kristof, 1996; Vogel & Feldman, 2009; Wheeler, et al., 2005), but research has tended to seek what is generally applicable in the interaction between the individual and the environment to result in 'fit' and its affective outcomes. Because of this complexity, the majority of studies have tended towards specific facets of fit, for example person-organisation fit (Chatman, 1989, 1991; O'Reilly, et al., 1991), person-job fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Edwards, 1991), person-person fit (Graves & Powell, 1988; Van Vianen, 2000), person-preference for culture fit (Van Vianen, 2000), person-vocation fit (J. L. Holland, 1985; R. H. Moos, 1987) person-group fit (Adkins, et al., 1996; Hollenbeck, et al., 2002; Judge & Ferris, 1992) and person-supervisor fit (Adkins, et al., 1994).

The result of the predominance of nomothetic and deductive approaches to PE fit research and its analysis is a generalised understanding of person-environment fit rather than detailed knowledge as to what may hold true for individuals. In view of the tradition in fit research to use nomothetic methods, causal mapping has essentially been ignored as a possible method in the field as to date almost all uses of the technique have been for idiographic purposes, i.e. to understand the individual or individual situations better (e.g Billsberry, Ambrosini, Moss-Jones, et al., 2005).

In the following sections it is argued that the study of groups and individuals are both highly relevant and useful to adding new knowledge to the field. However, idiographic and nomothetic methods are not necessarily mutually exclusive: the study of individuals can make an important contribution to the general understanding of larger groups (Zevon & Tellegen, 1982).

5.6 Analysis of Idiographically Generated Causal Maps

In analysing an idiographically generated map, how this is done necessarily depends on the purpose of the study (Eden, et al., 1992) and the research approach being taken (which is likely to be inductive, retroductive or abductive rather than deductive). As noted above, the first analytical step is to study the map's features: its constructs, links, heads, tails and 'shape'. Software applications such as Decision Explorer and CMAP2 (Laukkanen, 1994) are particularly appropriate for the analysis of idiographic maps (Clarkson & Hodgkinson, 2005) and make the identification of features such as loops and clusters more rigorous than if the map were analysed by hand.

The content of the concepts or nodes is analysed to identify themes. Ennis (1999), for example, in his study of a small firm's growth, used an inductive approach and content analysed the company owner's causal map to identify five main themes leading to growth and development in the firm. Content analysis of this type allows the researcher to get an

in-depth understanding of the factors which play a role for one person or organisation and for hypotheses to be formed which can subsequently be tested with larger populations.

The analysis of multiple idiographic cognitive maps has received some considerable attention, perhaps most notably by Eden and Ackermann (1998). They cautioned that comparing idiographic maps can be fraught with difficulties given that people attach different meanings to the words that they use in constructing maps. This however, has not deterred researchers who can see the advantage of analysing the richness of individuals' maps and comparing these to see whether generalizable patterns emerge. On the subject of cognitive maps used in strategy and organisation theory, Michel Bougon (1992) concluded that each individual map is "an expression of only one congregate map" as they show the social reality as it is constructed.

Studies of organisational strategy are somewhat different to idiographic studies of individuals' fit with their work environment as an individual's interaction with their environment, albeit one which is co-constructed with colleagues, is being mapped. A more relativist approach to the analysis of such causal maps is to combine qualitative and quantitative methods. The content of the maps can be qualitatively analysed, identifying common themes. Pooling the themes from all of the maps would lead to a second stage of analysis, identifying overlapping and common themes for all of the maps. Using frequency tables allows the identification of the those themes which appear to be particularly important, which can then be explored by closer qualitative scrutiny (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The analysis of the structure of multiple idiographic causal maps can also prove fruitful. For example, it is possible to compare the complexity of the individuals' maps, for example comparing whether those people who perceive that they misfit at work have

more or less complex maps than those people who perceive that they fit well in their work environment.

Taking the route of comparing idiographic causal maps is not advisable unless there are compelling reasons to do so. It is a laborious process and has the potential for error. However, given the lack of idiographic research in the PE fit field, the extra work involved has the potential to yield dividends especially as there is a lack of knowledge and understanding of people's day to day experiences of fitting and misfitting at work. Gaining a perspective on whether the aggregate, generalised empirical data holds true for individuals would be valuable indeed.

5.7 Analysis of Nomothetically Generated Maps

As noted above, the need to be able to analyze multiple causal maps accurately and efficiently and to be able to deductively analyze them has been recognized for nearly two decades (Fiol & Huff, 1992; Huff, 1997). Langfield-Smith's (1992) experiment to elicit the shared perceptions of fire-fighting staff concluded that although the participants had been able to easily construct individual causal maps of their what they considered to be important in their roles, they found it difficult to reach consensus and to construct a collective causal map of shared beliefs. This was because although they held some common beliefs, the individuals' beliefs did not necessarily completely match. In a further study with Wirth (Langfield-Smith & Wirth, 1992) the authors assessed whether the difference between multiple maps could be measured. They specifically sought to be able to identify whether maps contained similar (or different) elements, whether the beliefs of one participant were shared (or not) by others and where there were shared beliefs, whether these were similarly strong (or weak) compared to others. A matrix structure was used, so that the elements of one participant's map could be cross-referenced against another participant's map and where the elements matched, a positive score would result. Using a matrix difference score allowed a distance formula to be calculated to assess the relative

similarity or difference between two maps. The results of these studies gave researchers new avenues towards quantitative techniques for developing the means to do this.

The use of pools of constructs put forward by Markóczy and Goldberg (1995), using Langfield-Smith and Wirth's (1992) measure of distance ratios, was further developed by Clarkson and Hodgkinson (2005) who made an important contribution in making available user-friendly software in the form of Cognizer. Previously available computer packages such as Decision Explorer, CMAP2 and Distrat/askmap were not designed for, or sufficiently user-friendly, to permit large scale map comparisons (see Clarkson & Hodgkinson, 2005 for a review).

Clarkson and Hodgkinson's (2005) paper outlined a study conducted in 5 organizations with 200 participants using a pool of 55 constructs generated from a broad literature review using the Cognizer software that they developed. The software randomly presents the 55 constructs to participants, who are asked to select those which they feel are most important (up to a maximum of 13). Pairwise comparison is used in that the participants are presented with two constructs and are asked whether one influences the other and if so, if this is a positive or negative influence. Participants are further probed as to the strength of the influence (strong (± 3), moderate) (± 2) or slight (± 1)). The pairs of constructs are presented on-screen to the participants who can work their own way through the process systematically. When the process is complete, individuals are able to look at the resulting causal map, the advantage of which is that no time elapses during which the person's perception of the situation may change.

Causal maps elicited through the use of Cognizer can, like other causal maps, be analyzed according to their content or structure, the difference being that the analysis is faster and the potential for human error (such as coding error) is reduced. As the constructs are already known, what is of interest with regard to the content is the relative strength of influence of each of the constructs and this is calculated with the 'indegree' and

'outdegree' values. The indegree value indicates to what extent the construct is influenced by other constructs and the outdegree value shows the influence a construct has on others. Clarkson and Hodgkinson (2005) combined the 200 maps into a single composite map then assessed the constructs' indegree and outdegree values but they also composed composite maps for each of the five participating organizations, showing that there were key differences between the organizations.

The use of an application like Cognizer would be valuable in the person-environment fit field in studies in cases where it is possible to generate a pool of constructs which capture all of the elements that individuals are likely to perceive as influencing their fit. The nomothetic application of Cognizer would be less applicable in the study of a concept such as misfit where there is relatively little understanding of the factors which have a bearing. Being able to map chains of causality and showing which constructs have greater or lesser salience would be of particular interest in assessing the multi-dimensionality of fit, where it is known that there are several factors at play and there is evidence to suggest that some factors have more salience for individuals at particular points in time. As well as calculating relative salience, Cognizer also allows the comparison of similarities and differences between maps (using Langfield-Smith and Wirth's (1992) Distance Formula 12 or Markóczy and Goldberg's (1995) measure of difference) but it is also possible to "systematically link cause maps to a variety of exogenous variables reflecting individual and organizational characteristics" (Clarkson & Hodgkinson, 2005, p. 331). In PE fit studies, this would enable researchers to assess whether differences in fit perceptions are affected by such variables as length of service and involvement in organizational socialization (Chatman, 1991), which are thought to affect the degree of fit and also the factors individuals consider to be salient at any one time.

Nomothetically generated maps tend to be analysed with a view to generating generalizable findings. It is however possible to idiographically analyse nomothetic maps. In a study of managerial decision making for example, participants could be given individual feedback as to how the ways in which they make decisions and the factors that they take into account compare to the overall group. It would also in such a case be possible to identify outliers and to scrutinise these in order to see how and why they differ from the generalised theories emerging from the data.

Jenkins and Johnson (1997a), in their study of entrepreneurial intentions and outcomes, came to deductive conclusions on the basis of their analysis of the participants' causal maps but also conducted a further iterative inductive analysis in order to more deeply consider the differences that they found between some respondents' maps. This in-depth, inductive approach allowed the authors to formulate research questions for further, future research.

Idiographic and nomothetic approaches to eliciting and analysing data are often shown as distinct, but what becomes apparent from the preceding sections is that they can form part of a 'learning loop'. Idiographic studies can inform further deductive, nomothetic research which, when tested on individuals, can allow researchers to build new theories inductively. The nomothetic approaches to causal mapping and specifically, the use of software such as Cognizer, potentially allows for research which increases understanding of both the multi-dimensionality and temporal nature of PE fit. There is however a key proviso: to be able to take a nomothetic approach depends wholly on the researchers' confidence that the constructs which comprise PE fit are known. Too little is known about what comprises individuals' misfit perceptions to be able to take a nomothetic approach which is why an idiographic approach was adopted for this study. However, what *is* known about PE fit has not been discounted and therefore the idiographic maps generated for this study were analysed using a coding schedule derived

from previous empirical studies in order to surmise the similarities and differences between people's perceptions of fit and misfit and to theorise what this may mean for employees generally.

Section 2 The Causal Map Data

This section describes in detail the content of the participants' idiographic causal maps and what the process of coding these using dimensions from the literature found.

5.8 The Causal Map Concepts

The causal maps for this study were typed into Decision Explorer. In section 5.6 it was noted that using specialised software is useful in that it allows the data to be manipulated using specialised functions and this reduces the potential for human error. The causal map concepts needed to be separated into those which were part of causal chains leading to the 'Fit' head on the map and those belonging to chains leading to 'Misfit'. Decision Explorer's 'set' function allows for concepts to be grouped together, however, it was found that in practice, it was necessary to allocate concepts to sets manually which would increase the potential for error. The 'cluster' analysis function was found to exclude concepts. The concepts were therefore separated by highlighting 'Fit' and then mapping this concept on a blank view. The same process was repeated for 'Misfit'. This relatively simple procedure allowed for the 'fit' and 'misfit' causal chain concepts to be mapped separately. By listing the heads, tails and all concepts (using Decision Explorer's 'List' function), separate lists of fit and misfit concepts were made for each participant.

As shown in table 5.1 below, the 38 causal maps generated for this study together contained 2241 concepts. Of these, 1523 were concepts mentioned by the participants in relation to how they fitted at work and 1014 were concepts which participants cited in

relation to their misfit at work. There were 296 overlapping or 'double' concepts on the maps, i.e. items leading to both fit and misfit. For example, one participant stated that her cultural background led her to both fit in and misfit at work.

The right hand column of table 5.1 shows the participants' responses to the question on the post-interview questionnaire (see section 4. 6 and appendix 8) where they were asked "to what extent do you think that you currently fit or misfit at work?" This question had a Likert scale: 1 Misfit, 2 More misfit than fit, 3 Neither, 4 More fit than misfit and 5 Fit. Three of the participants considered themselves to misfit at work, 5 people perceived themselves to misfit more than fit, one person said 'neither', 13 considered themselves to fit more than misfit and the remaining 16 participants considered themselves to fit well at work.

The majority of participants, although not classifying themselves as a misfit, had something to say about things that made them misfit at work. Only two participants had no misfit concepts on their causal map (participants 5 and 17). Another 5 participants had 5 or fewer misfit concepts on their maps (participants 4, 11, 13, 14 and 35). There was only one participant who had no fit concepts on his map (participant 2).

All of the concepts from the causal maps were input onto an Excel spreadsheet with columns showing the participant identifier, whether it was a concept from a fit or misfit causal chain, whether it was a tail or double concept, the full text of the concept and the code which each of the three coders had assigned. Having the data in spreadsheet format ensured that it was possible to manipulate the data, separate the fit from the misfit concepts and the heads and tails for example.

Table 5.1 Summary of Number of Concepts in the Causal Maps

PARTICIPANT	TOTAL	FIT	MISFIT	OVERLAP	HEADS	FIT TAILS	MISFIT TAILS	FIT/ MISFIT
1	59	15	46	2	2	6	13	1 misfit
2	30	0	30	0	1	0	6	2 mmtf
3	66	40	34	8	2	9	9	4 mftm
4	35	32	3	0	2	6	1	5 fit
5	42	42	0	0	1	11	0	5 fit
6	51	20	37	6	2	4	9	4 mftm
7	47	37	11	1	2	5	2	4 mftm
8	68	7	65	4	2	4	19	1 misfit
9	48	36	24	12	2	10	6	5 fit
10	58	38	24	4	2	13	5	4 mftm
11	30	29	2	1	2	6	1	5 fit
12	52	27	43	18	3	8	11	2 mmtf
13	39	38	5	4	2	15	1	4 mftm
14	48	47	3	2	2	18	1	5 fit
15	71	57	54	40	2	14	16	4 mftm
16	62	60	2	0	2	21	1	5 fit
17	35	35	0	0	1	9	0	5 fit
18	48	14	43	9	2	4	9	4 mftm
19	54	41	20	7	2	11	6	4 mftm
20	79	44	43	8	2	7	12	4 mftm
21	49	30	29	10	2	10	5	5 fit
22	59	47	21	9	2	7	5	5 fit
23	60	58	9	7	2	13	2	5 fit
24	103	85	28	10	2	27	7	2 mmtf
25	56	50	27	21	2	8	7	5 fit
26	69	45	39	15	2	5	6	2 org 4 job
27	72	18	66	12	2	5	9	1 misfit
28	65	48	22	5	2	8	6	5 fit
29	58	28	33	3	2	8	5	2 mmtf
30	66	58	8	0	2	17	3	5 fit
31	49	39	17	7	2	8	7	4 mftm
32	58	57	8	7	2	8	2	4.5
33	82	78	28	24	2	17	8	5 fit
34	98	20	89	11	2	5	17	4 mftm
35	59	55	4	0	2	11	1	4 mftm
36	84	62	35	13	2	5	5	5 fit
37	77	61	23	7	2	12	5	5 fit
38	55	25	39	9	2	7	9	3 neither
TOTALS	**2241**	**1523**	**1014**	**296**	**74**	**362**	**237**	

5.9 Expansion of the coding schedule

There were 19 possible codes on the coding schedule (appendix 6): the 7 PE fit dimensions, 7 organisational demography/social identity factors and the 5 constituents of JE. However, once the coding was completed and the three coders' results were compared, it became evident that 172 codes had been used as a) the original codes were used, b) the codes were combined in various ways to produce new codes (e.g. Tenure + Links-organisation), c) new codes were invented by the coders as they identified emerging themes which did not fit neatly into one of the existing codes and d) some constructs were left uncoded. Of these 172 codes, 70 were used 5 or more times by the coders and the remaining 102 were used four times or less.

5.10 Level of agreement between the coders

As noted above, there were 2241 concepts in total on the maps of which 74 were 'heads'. The head concepts are those where the causal chain ends and as such these were either labelled 'Fit' or 'Misfit'. The heads were not coded and were therefore excluded, leaving 2167 code-able concepts on the maps. There were 1281 concepts for which the three coders agreed on the coding. Overall therefore, there was full agreement on the coding of 59.1% of the concepts:

$$1281/2167 \times 100 = 59.1\%$$

There were 699 concepts for which 2 out of the 3 coders agreed on the coding. Therefore, for 32.3% of the concepts, two of the coders agreed on the assigned codes:

$$699/2176 \times 100 = 32.3\%$$

For the remaining 187 concepts, the coders did not agree on the coding. Hence, there was no agreement in the coding for 8.6% of the concepts:

$187/2167 \times 100 = 8.6\%$.

Overall therefore, majority agreement was reached on 91.4% of the coding. According to Miles & Huberman (1994, p. 64) "Eventually both intra- and intercoder agreement should be up in the 90% range, depending on the size and range of the coding scheme." The level of coding agreement achieved was therefore acceptable, especially given the wide ranging coding scheme, large number of concepts and the exploratory nature of the study.

The inter-rater reliability was also checked for the coding of those items on the participants' maps which they had cited in relation only to their misfit perceptions. For these concepts, majority agreement was reached on 90.9% of the codes. For the fit concepts on the maps, the coding team reached majority agreement on 92.1% of the codes. There was therefore no distinct difference between how well the coding team was able to agree on the coding of the fit concepts compared to the misfit concepts.

Section 3 Breakdown of the Coding

5.11 Coding across the maps

In section 5.9 it was noted that the coders had expanded the coding and that as a result, a list of 172 codes was generated. Appendix 9 gives an overview of all of the codes used: The left hand side of the table is ordered alphabetically and on the right hand side the same data are presented but in order of frequency. It was apparent that many codes had been used in combination. Taking PJ fit as an example, PJ D-A (person-job demands-abilities fit) was listed separately from PJ skills and PJ was also combined with PV fit. In all, PJ featured in 45 of the 172 codes. Therefore, although listing each of the codes used separately gave an overview of the coding, it did not give an accurate picture of how the codes had been used.

To address this, the codes were grouped together to elicit how many times each had been used, whether on its own or in combination with other codes. Further, the data were separated to differentiate which codes had been used for the concepts on the maps which were cited in relation to people's fit perceptions and misfit perceptions. The table in Appendix 10 shows how the 172 combined codes were grouped together. This table is useful in showing that many codes were used in combination with others so that, for example, 'Age' appears in 10 different combinations in the coding despite it being an infrequently used code. The major limitation of grouping the data in this way is that it inflates the number of times that the codes are used as some appear in more than one place on the 'grouped codes' table. For example, AGE PO appears both in the 'Age' and the PO fit categories. The result is that although the three coders each coded 2537 concepts giving a total of 7611 (see Appendix 9), when these are grouped, this figure is inflated to 8700 (see Appendix 10). Those codes which have been used in several combinations are therefore inflated.

Given that this is a limitation, the frequency tables presented in the sections below are used to describe the data that emerged from the coding process and to indicate those areas which may be of interest. In chapter 6, where the data are fully analysed, each of the concepts on the participants' maps is assigned a code agreed by the three coders, rather than using all of the coders' data.

The data from appendix 10 is summarised in table 5.2 which gives shows the grouped codes for fit and misfit, showing the number of times the codes were used (by all three coders) as well as a percentage column for fit, misfit and the combined total. On table 5.2, the codes have been blocked into the broad categories used in the original coding framework: PE fit codes in the first block, organisational demography codes in the second block and JE codes in the third block. The final block shows those codes which were added to the coding schedule. Looking at the total for each of the blocks, it is apparent that the PE fit codes were used the most frequently in coding the fit and misfit data. These codes were used slightly more frequently overall for misfit than fit concepts. Despite this, the PJ fit code was used more often to code fit concepts (23.4%) than misfit concepts (17%) whereas the PO fit code was used for 18.4% of misfit concepts and 14% of fit concepts. PI and PV were infrequently used as codes and PS fit, although not used as often as PO, PJ and PG fit, was more often a code assigned to misfit than fit concepts.

The organisational demography codes were very infrequently used for both the fit and misfit concepts and accounted for only 3.5% of the coding overall.

Table 5.2 Summary of Grouped Codes

PE fit

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	total	%
PO	733	14.0	637	18.4	1370	15.7
PJ	1226	23.4	587	17.0	1813	20.8
PG	822	15.7	575	16.6	1397	16.1
PV	142	2.7	63	1.8	205	2.4
PS	348	6.6	387	11.2	735	8.4
PI	41	0.8	91	2.6	132	1.5
TOTAL	3312	63.1	2340	67.7	5652	65.0

Organisational Demography

AGE	14	0.3	20	0.6	34	0.4
TENURE	81	1.5	29	0.8	110	1.3
GENDER	5	0.1	7	0.2	12	0.1
RACE	1	0.0	5	0.1	6	0.1
SOCIO	51	1.0	64	1.9	115	1.3
RELIGION	4	0.1	4	0.1	8	0.1
EDUC	18	0.3	3	0.1	21	0.2
TOTAL	174	3.3	132	3.8	306	3.5

Job Embeddedness

FIT C	106	2.0	55	1.6	161	1.9
LINKS C	307	5.9	124	3.6	431	5.0
LINKS O	174	3.3	91	2.6	265	3.0
SACR C	10	0.2	10	0.3	20	0.2
SACR O	420	8.0	180	5.2	600	6.9
TOTAL	1017	19.4	460	13.3	1477	17.0

New Codes and Uncoded

P	428	8.2	234	6.8	662	7.6
CULT	38	0.7	56	1.6	94	1.1
exp	18	0.3	11	0.3	29	0.3
DRESS	12	0.2	8	0.2	20	0.2
HEALTH	9	0.2	6	0.2	15	0.2
WL BAL	1	0.0	4	0.1	5	0.1
econ	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0
language	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0
JE	1	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0
TOTAL	507	9.7	322	9.3	829	9.5
NO CODE	235	4.5	201	5.8	436	5.0
Total	5245	100.0	3455	100.0	8700	100.0

The JE dimensions were overall used far less frequently in coding the data than the PE fit dimensions but were nevertheless used in coding 19.4% of the fit concepts and 13.3% of the misfit concepts. Sacrifice-community (Sacr-C) was rarely used as a code. Sacrifice-organisation (Sacr-O) and links-community (Links-O) were more often used, especially in coding participants' fit concepts. Job embeddedness "was conceptualized specifically as reflecting the totality of forces that constrain people from leaving their current employment" (Mitchell, et al., 2001, p. 1115). As such, it may explain the factors keeping people in their jobs.

The final boxes on table 5.2 show those codes which the coders added to the coding schedule and the number of concepts left uncoded. The number of times that personality (P) was used was high and it ranked as the fourth most common code used for the fit concepts and the fifth most commonly used code for misfit. The other 'new' codes, albeit not used as frequently, nevertheless suggested that there are factors involved in people's misfit and fit perceptions which are not covered by the commonly used PE fit, organisational demography and JE measures.

5.12 The Tail Concepts

The tails on a causal map are those concepts which are at the originating end of a causal chain; they are in effect the root causes. Tails are therefore of particular interest: they may shed light on what is at the root of people's fit and misfit perceptions. The tails were examined by separating them from the other concepts on people's maps and analysing the coding in the same way as previously: the number of times each of the codes was used by each of the coders was calculated, following which the codes were grouped together to give a fuller picture of the number of times each of the principal codes was used and the data were then ranked to see which of the codes was used more frequently than others. The causal map tails were analysed in three stages. All of the tails were

analysed first, followed by the fit tails and lastly the misfit tails. The results of these analyses are shown in table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Summary of Grouped Codes – Tail Concepts

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	ALL TAILS	%
PO	169	13.7	146	18.2	315	15.4
PJ	284	23.0	168	20.9	452	22.2
PG	138	11.2	120	14.9	258	12.7
PV	44	3.6	21	2.6	65	3.2
PS	76	6.1	54	6.7	130	6.4
PI	11	0.9	21	2.6	32	1.6
TOTAL	722	58.4	530	66.0	1252	61.4
AGE	7	0.6	9	1.1	16	0.8
TENURE	41	3.3	17	2.1	58	2.8
GENDER	1	0.1	5	0.6	6	0.3
RACE	1	0.1	4	0.5	5	0.2
SOCIO	23	1.9	23	2.9	46	2.3
RELIGION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDUC	8	0.6	1	0.1	9	0.4
TOTAL	81	6.6	59	7.3	140	6.9
FIT C	40	3.2	12	1.5	52	2.6
LINKS C	100	8.1	34	4.2	134	6.6
LINKS O	49	4.0	26	3.2	75	3.7
SACR C	4	0.3	0	0.0	4	0.2
SACR O	71	5.7	29	3.6	100	4.9
TOTAL	264	21.4	101	12.6	365	17.9
P	108	8.7	53	6.6	161	7.9
CULT	14	1.1	15	1.9	29	1.4
exp	9	0.7	8	1.0	17	0.8
DRESS	2	0.2	2	0.2	4	0.2
HEALTH	2	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.1
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.0
language	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	135	10.9	80	10.0	215	10.5
NO CODE	34	2.8	33	4.1	67	3.3
TOTAL	1236	100.0	803	100.0	2039	100.0

Table 5.3 shares similarities with table 5.2 in that the PE fit codes were most commonly assigned to the tail concepts. It shows that the root causes of people's fit and misfit perceptions were most often seen to be person-job factors, even though PO fit was the coding most often assigned to misfit concepts overall. Together, PO, PJ and PG fit were used to code just over 50% of the root concepts and therefore organisational and job factors along with work groups appear to have the greatest impact on people's fit and misfit perceptions. PS fit was used in coding 11.2% of the concepts on the misfit causal chains but was shown to be at the root of 6.7% of these chains, roughly equal to that of the fit root causes. PV and PI were again infrequently used to code the tail concepts.

The demographic codes were used more often to code the root concepts on the causal maps (6.9%) than the rest of the concepts on the causal chains (3.5%) but age, gender, race religion and education appeared very infrequently. The two demographic codes which were used more often were tenure and socio-economic factors but taken together, these still only accounted for 5.1% of the tail concepts' coding.

Nearly 18% of the tail concepts were coded using the JE dimensions, of which links-community was most often used overall. However, the JE codes were used more frequently in coding the fit tail concepts (21.4%) than the misfit tails (12.6%). Links-community was the fourth most often used code for the fit tails and as such it seems that people's wider networks outside of the organisation may impact on their perceptions of fit at work. Links-community does not appear to play as great a role in people's perceptions of misfit. Sacrifice-community was again rarely used in coding the tail concepts on participants' maps.

5.13 The Misfits

The causal maps constructed by the people who considered themselves to be misfits at work were analysed to assess how they differed from the rest of the sample. Three out of

the 38 participants stated that they were a misfit (number 1 on the scale) and a further five people said that they were more of a misfit than a fit at work (see table 5.1).

The data for these eight people was extracted from the data set to see how the concepts on the 'misfits' maps compared a) with the participants overall and b) those people who consider themselves to be a perfect fit at work.

Table 5.4 Summary of the number of concepts in The Misfits' causal maps

PARTICIPANT	TOTAL	FIT	MISFIT	OVERLAP	HEADS	FIT TAILS	MISFIT TAILS	FIT/ MISFIT
1	59	15	46	2	2	6	13	1 misfit
2	30	0	30	0	1	0	6	2 mmtf
8	68	7	65	4	2	4	19	1 misfit
12	52	27	43	18	3	8	11	2 mmtf
24	103	85	28	10	2	27	7	2 mmtf
26	69	45	39	15	2	5	6	2 org 4 job
27	72	18	66	12	2	5	9	1 misfit
29	58	28	33	3	2	8	5	2 mmtf
TOTALS	**511**	**225**	**350**	**64**	**16**	**63**	**76**	

Table 5.4 shows that although these participants stated that they perceived themselves to misfit at work, they nevertheless all-bar-one gave examples of factors causing them to fit at work as well. The eight maps under scrutiny for this part of the analysis therefore contain both fit and misfit constructs, but whereas the 38 maps contained 61% fit concepts and 39% misfit concepts, the maps for the eight misfits not surprisingly contained more misfit concepts (61%) than fit concepts (39%).

The data were analysed using the same procedure as used for the complete set of causal maps and the tail concepts: the coding was compared for all of the concepts on the misfits' maps after which the fit concepts and the misfit concepts were separated out to see how these differed. These analyses are detailed in the sections below.

Table 5.5 shows the summary of the grouped codes for the eight misfit maps, firstly showing the number of times that each code was used for the concepts on the maps and

secondly showing the relative percentages. The table shows that when people who perceive themselves to misfit speak about the things that cause them to fit or misfit at work, these most often relate to person-job, person-organisation and person-group fit, similar to the rankings for the overall causal map data (table 5.2). However, where this group of participants differs from the overall causal map data is in PG fit. Although the overall percentages are similar for PG fit in tables 5.2 and 5.5, PG fit was used in coding 21.1% of these participants' misfit concepts compared to 8.4% of the fit concepts on their maps. PO fit was used in coding 21.8% of these participants' misfit concepts and so together PO and PG fit were used for 42.9% of the misfit concepts on the misfits' maps. Similar to the overall totals, PJ fit is more often used in relation to fit concepts than misfit.

The JE codes were used in roughly similar proportions for the misfits' maps as for the maps overall, with JE dimensions being used more often for coding the fit concepts than the misfit concepts on these maps. The demography codes were not used often although socio-economic factors again feature in the coding of 3.2% of the fit and misfit concepts.

Table 5.5 The 8 Misfits – Summary of Grouped Codes

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	TOTAL	%
PO	103	13.8	256	21.8	359	18.7
PJ	185	24.7	177	15.1	362	18.8
PG	63	8.4	248	21.1	311	16.2
PV	49	6.6	27	2.3	76	4.0
PS	45	6.0	90	7.7	135	7.0
PI	5	0.7	16	1.4	21	1.1
TOTAL	450	60.2	814	69.4	1264	65.8
AGE	0	0.0	3	0.3	3	0.2
TENURE	10	1.3	8	0.7	18	0.9
GENDER	0	0.0	5	0.4	5	0.3
RACE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SOCIO	24	3.2	37	3.2	61	3.2
RELIGION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDUC	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.1
TOTAL	34	4.5	54	4.6	88	4.6
FIT C	31	4.1	15	1.3	46	2.4
LINKS C	52	7.0	24	2.0	76	4.0
LINKS O	16	2.1	38	3.2	54	2.8
SACR C	5	0.7	5	0.4	10	0.5
SACR O	37	4.9	51	4.3	88	4.6
TOTAL	141	18.9	133	11.3	274	14.3
P	56	7.5	84	7.2	140	7.3
CULT	20	2.7	31	2.6	51	2.7
exp	1	0.1	1	0.1	2	0.1
DRESS	0	0.0	4	0.3	4	0.2
HEALTH	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	77	10.3	120	10.2	197	10.3
NO CODE	46	6.1	52	4.4	98	5.1
TOTAL	748	100.0	1173	100.0	1921	100.0

5.14 The Perfect Fits

There were 16 participants in the study who felt that they fitted extremely well at work, giving themselves a 5 on the fit-misfit scale (see table 5.1). Table 5.13 below gives an overview of the number of concepts on these participants' maps.

Table 5.6 Summary of Concepts in the Perfect Fits' Causal Maps

PARTICIPANT	TOTAL	FIT	MISFIT	OVERLAP	HEADS	FIT TAILS	MISFIT TAILS	FIT/ MISFIT
4	35	32	3	0	2	6	1	5 fit
5	42	42	0	0	1	11	0	5 fit
9	48	36	24	12	2	10	6	5 fit
11	30	29	2	1	2	6	1	5 fit
14	48	47	3	2	2	18	1	5 fit
16	62	60	2	0	2	21	1	5 fit
17	35	35	0	0	1	9	0	5 fit
21	49	30	29	10	2	10	5	5 fit
22	59	47	21	9	2	7	5	5 fit
23	60	58	9	7	2	13	2	5 fit
25	56	50	27	21	2	8	7	5 fit
28	65	48	22	5	2	8	6	5 fit
30	66	58	8	0	2	17	3	5 fit
33	82	78	28	24	2	17	8	5 fit
36	84	62	35	13	2	5	5	5 fit
37	77	61	23	7	2	12	5	5 fit
TOTALS	**898**	**773**	**236**	**111**	**30**	**178**	**56**	

Table 5.6 shows that the number of fit concepts (77%) far outweighs the number of misfit concepts (23%) on these maps. Despite the fact that this group of participants felt themselves to fit extremely well at work, they nevertheless gave examples of ways in which they did not fit. A summary of the codes assigned by the three coders to the fit and misfit concepts in these maps is shown in table 5.7.

Table 5.7 The 16 'Perfect' Fits – Summary of grouped codes

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	The Perfect Fits	%
PO	385	14.3	137	17.2	522	15.0
PJ	650	24.2	158	19.8	808	23.2
PG	453	16.9	106	13.3	559	16.0
PV	54	2.0	7	0.9	61	1.8
PS	129	4.8	59	7.4	188	5.4
PI	23	0.9	19	2.4	42	1.2
TOTAL	1694	63.0	486	61.1	2180	62.6
AGE	14	0.5	2	0.3	16	0.5
TENURE	42	1.6	2	0.3	44	1.3
GENDER	2	0.1	0	0.0	2	0.1
RACE	1	0.0	1	0.1	2	0.1
SOCIO	7	0.3	5	0.6	12	0.3
RELIGION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDUC	6	0.2	0	0.0	6	0.2
TOTAL	72	2.7	10	1.3	82	2.4
FIT C	61	2.3	15	1.9	76	2.2
LINKS C	175	6.5	46	5.8	221	6.3
LINKS O	101	3.8	20	2.5	121	3.5
SACR C	4	0.1	0	0.0	4	0.1
SACR O	206	7.7	50	6.3	256	7.3
TOTAL	547	20.3	131	16.5	678	19.5
P	233	8.7	69	8.7	302	8.7
CULT	15	0.6	14	1.8	29	0.8
exp	13	0.5	6	0.8	19	0.5
DRESS	8	0.3	3	0.4	11	0.3
HEALTH	6	0.2	6	0.8	12	0.3
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.0
JE	1	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0
TOTAL	276	10.3	100	12.6	376	10.8
NO CODE	99	3.7	69	8.7	168	4.8
TOTAL	2688	100.0	796	100.0	3484	100.0

There are similarities between the coding for the data overall (table 5.2), the misfits' data (table 5.5) and the coding for the perfect fits' causal map concepts (table 5.7) in that the PE fit codes were consistently the most commonly used followed by the job embeddedness codes. Person-Job fit seems to be highly relevant to both the fit perceptions of those participants who deem themselves to fit in at work and also to those who consider themselves to misfit. Table 5.7 shows that PJ fit seems highly important in people's fit perceptions in that 24.2% of the fit concepts were coded using PJ fit. For the misfits' maps, PJ fit was similarly used as a code for 24.7% of the concepts leading to perceptions of fit but was used far less frequently in coding the misfit concepts (15.1%). In table 5.7, the people who fit well at work mention their fit with their colleagues (PG fit) both in relation to their fit perceptions and their misfit perceptions. In table 5.5, there is a marked difference as those people who perceive themselves to misfit far more frequently mention person-group fit in relation to misfit (21.1%) than fit (8.4%). PO fit is similarly mentioned more often in relation to misfit than fit by both those participants who consider themselves to misfit and those who perceive themselves to fit well at work.

It seems therefore that there are differences in what makes misfits feel they misfit compared to what makes people who perceive themselves to fit, fit in. To investigate what lies at the root of these fit and misfit perceptions, an analysis of the 16 'perfect fit' map tail concepts was carried out as well as an examination of the eight misfit maps' tails.

5.15 The Perfect Fits' Tail Concepts

The tail, or root, concepts which appeared on the 16 causal maps generated by the participants who considered themselves to fit well at work were separated from the rest of the causal chains. How these concepts were coded is shown on table 5.8.

This table, similar to the previous analyses, shows that the PE fit codes featured heavily in coding the tail concepts and PO, PJ and PG fit combined accounted for 48.9% of the codes used. The job embeddedness codes accounted for 20.5% and the personality (P)

code made up 9.8% of the total codes assigned. The table shows that PV fit, although infrequently mentioned, plays more of a part in these participants' fit perception than in any misfit perceptions that they may have. Tenure only constitutes 3.9% of the fit tails coding but it seems that tenure is cited more commonly as a root cause of fit perceptions than it is referred to in the causal chains themselves.

The job embeddedness concepts, with the exception of sacrifice-community, are all more frequently used as codes for the fit tails than the misfit tails for this group of participants. In total, the JE codes account for 22% of the total codes used for the fit tails, suggesting that people's embeddedness in their community and, to some extent, their organisation, is at the root of their fit perceptions.

Table 5.8 The Perfect Fits' Tail Concepts – Summary of Grouped Coding

The Perfect Fits' Tail concepts

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	The Perfect Fits	%
PO	93	15.0	35	18.7	128	15.8
PJ	135	21.7	45	24.1	180	22.2
PG	72	11.6	16	8.6	88	10.9
PV	16	2.6	1	0.5	17	2.1
PS	33	5.3	12	6.4	45	5.6
PI	7	1.1	7	3.7	14	1.7
TOTAL	356	57.2	116	62.0	472	58.3
AGE	7	1.1	0	0.0	7	0.9
TENURE	24	3.9	2	1.1	26	3.2
GENDER	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
RACE	1	0.2	1	0.5	2	0.2
SOCIO	4	0.6	2	1.1	6	0.7
RELIGION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDUC	3	0.5	0	0.0	3	0.4
TOTAL	39	6.3	5	2.7	44	5.4
FIT C	21	3.4	3	1.6	24	3.0
LINKS C	60	9.6	12	6.4	72	8.9
LINKS O	26	4.2	8	4.3	34	4.2
SACR C	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SACR O	30	4.8	6	3.2	36	4.4
TOTAL	137	22.0	29	15.5	166	20.5
P	60	9.6	19	10.2	79	9.8
CULT	6	1.0	5	2.7	11	1.4
exp	5	0.8	4	2.1	9	1.1
DRESS	2	0.3	1	0.5	3	0.4
HEALTH	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	1	0.5	1	0.1
facilities	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	73	11.7	30	16.0	103	12.7
NO CODE	17	2.7	7	3.7	24	3.0
TOTAL	622	100.0	187	100.0	809	100.0

In order to see how this contrasted with the root causes of misfits' perceptions, the eight misfit maps' tail concepts were analysed.

5.16 The Eight Misfits' Tail Concepts

The causal maps drawn up for the eight participants who stated that they did not fit in at work contained 63 tail concepts leading to fit (45% fit tails) and 76 tail concepts leading to misfit (55% misfit tails) giving 139 concepts in total. The fit and misfit tails on these maps were therefore far more evenly balanced compared to the 'perfect fits' maps, which contained 178 fit tails (76%) and 56 misfit tails (24%).

Table 5.9 shows the number of times each of the PE fit, organisational demography, JE and other codes were used for the tail concepts on the misfits' maps. The PE fit codes were again the ones most commonly used and of these, PJ fit was the most frequently used code on the fit tails on the misfit maps but PO fit was employed for a larger proportion of the misfit tails. The only organisational demography code which was used for this group of participants fit tail concepts was socio (socio-economic factors).

Table 5.9 The Eight Misfits' Tail Concepts – Summary of Grouped Codes

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	The 8 Misfits	%
PO	37	18.3	54	21.5	91	20.1
PJ	48	23.8	49	19.5	97	21.4
PG	13	6.4	50	19.9	63	13.9
PV	16	7.9	9	3.6	25	5.5
PS	5	2.5	12	4.8	17	3.8
PI	3	1.5	4	1.6	7	1.5
TOTAL	122	60.4	178	70.9	300	66.2
AGE	0	0.0	2	0.8	2	0.4
TENURE	0	0.0	2	0.8	2	0.4
GENDER	0	0.0	4	1.6	4	0.9
RACE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SOCIO	9	4.5	10	4.0	19	4.2
RELIGION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDUC	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	0.2
TOTAL	9	4.5	19	7.6	28	6.2
FIT C	14	6.9	0	0.0	14	3.1
LINKS C	15	7.4	6	2.4	21	4.6
LINKS O	3	1.5	5	2.0	8	1.8
SACR C	4	2.0	0	0.0	4	0.9
SACR O	4	2.0	6	2.4	10	2.2
TOTAL	40	19.8	17	6.8	57	12.6
P	14	6.9	14	5.6	28	6.2
CULT	8	4.0	8	3.2	16	3.5
exp	1	0.5	1	0.4	2	0.4
DRESS	0	0.0	1	0.4	1	0.2
HEALTH	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	23	11.4	24	9.6	47	10.4
NO CODE	8	4.0	13	5.2	21	4.6
TOTAL	202	100.0	251	100.0	453	100.0

5.17 Comparing the root causes of fit and misfit

In order to investigate whether the root causes of fit and misfit are similar or different, the root causes of misfit for the group of 8 participants who felt that they misfitted at work was compared to the root causes of fit for those 16 participants who felt that they fitted well (i.e. comparing the misfit column in table 5.9 with the fit column in table 5.8). These data are presented side-by-side in table 5.10 for ease of reference.

From table 5.10 it is apparent that the PE fit codes were used proportionately more frequently for the misfits' misfit tails than they were for the fit tails. PO, PJ and PG fit all feature frequently as the root of people's fit *and* misfit perceptions. PG and PO however are at the root of a higher proportion of misfit perceptions. People's fit with their vocation, supervisor and individuals (PV, PS and PI) figure less frequently as a root cause of either fit or misfit.

The organisational demography codes were again used infrequently. Tenure was used more often in relation to the fit root causes than the misfit concepts with participants particularly speaking about the length of time that they had worked for the organisation as being at the root of why they felt they fitted in at work. The code 'socio-economic factors' was conversely used more often in coding the misfit root concepts. Here, participants spoke about their family backgrounds as being at the root of their perceptions of misfit at work.

The striking difference between the two columns in table 5.10 is that the job embeddedness codes accounted for 22% of the codes used for the fit root concepts but only accounted for 6.8 % of the misfit tail codes. Of the JE codes, links-community was the code used most frequently for the fit root concepts. Participants spoke about how having links in the community to other family members was a basis for them fitting in at work.

Table 5.10 Root causes of Fit and Misfit Compared

The Perfect Fits' Tail concepts

CODE	FIT	%
PO	93	15.0
PJ	135	21.7
PG	72	11.6
PV	16	2.6
PS	33	5.3
PI	7	1.1
TOTAL	356	57.2
AGE	7	1.1
TENURE	24	3.9
GENDER	0	0.0
RACE	1	0.2
SOCIO	4	0.6
RELIGION	0	0.0
EDUC	3	0.5
TOTAL	39	6.3
FIT C	21	3.4
LINKS C	60	9.6
LINKS O	26	4.2
SACR C	0	0.0
SACR O	30	4.8
TOTAL	137	22.0
P	60	9.6
CULT	6	1.0
exp	5	0.8
DRESS	2	0.3
HEALTH	0	0.0
WL BAL	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0
language	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0
TOTAL	73	11.7
NO CODE	17	2.7
TOTAL	622	100.0

The 8 Misfits' Tail Concepts

CODE	MISFIT	%
PO	54	21.5
PJ	49	19.5
PG	50	19.9
PV	9	3.6
PS	12	4.8
PI	4	1.6
TOTAL	178	70.9
AGE	2	0.8
TENURE	2	0.8
GENDER	4	1.6
RACE	0	0.0
SOCIO	10	4.0
RELIGION	0	0.0
EDUC	1	0.4
TOTAL	19	7.6
FIT C	0	0.0
LINKS C	6	2.4
LINKS O	5	2.0
SACR C	0	0.0
SACR O	6	2.4
TOTAL	17	6.8
P	14	5.6
CULT	8	3.2
exp	1	0.4
DRESS	1	0.4
HEALTH	0	0.0
WL BAL	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0
language	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0
TOTAL	24	9.6
NO CODE	13	5.2
TOTAL	251	100.0

The last section of table 5.10 shows the codes that were added to the coding schedule by the coders as themes emerged which were not covered by the PE, demography and JE codes. The first of these codes, personality (P) was used more often for the fit root causes. The 'perfect fits' often said that their personality was a core reason for them fitting at work. Culture was added to the coding schedule because the participants referred to their cultural background in explaining what led them to misfit. Although there were relatively few mentions of culture, when taken together with the socio economic factors it seems that misfits felt that their cultural and social backgrounds played a role in shaping their misfit perceptions.

5.18 The Doubles

Throughout this chapter, the concepts which lead to both fit *and* misfit, the 'doubles', have been frequently mentioned. These are those concepts which appear on an individual's map both in a causal chain leading to fit and also as part of a chain leading to misfit. As such, when the causal chains leading to fit were separated from the causal chains leading to misfit, they appeared on both.

In analysing the differences between fit and misfit perceptions, and thus whether fit and misfit may be conceptualised as polar opposites, focusing on those concepts which appear to lead to both states is relevant. In total there were 296 concepts on the participants' maps which led to both fit and misfit. Some maps had no 'double' concepts and that tended to be for those participants who had little to say about factors causing them to misfit at work. Table 5.1 shows the number of double or overlapping concepts for each of the participants' causal maps and in the 'overlap' column it can be seen that participant 15 had the highest number of concepts (40) which were part of both the fit and misfit causal chains and that this map was fairly evenly balanced with 57 concepts leading to fit and 54 leading to misfit, although this individual felt that she fitted fairly well at work.

However, such a high number of double concepts was the exception rather than the rule, with the majority of participants having 10 or fewer doubles on their maps.

The coding for the double concepts was analysed in the same way as previously: the number of times that each of the 172 codes was used was counted and then these were grouped together to show how these related to the broad categories of PE fit, organisational demography, job embeddedness and the supplementary codes which the coders had added to the coding schedule.

The double concepts featured as part of both a misfit and a fit causal chain (which is why they are not separated into fit and misfit columns on the table below) and it is therefore of interest to consider how these data compare with the overall coding for the concepts from the causal maps. Table 5.11 shows the coding for the double or overlapping concepts next to the data for all of the causal maps (taken from table 5.2).

Table 5.11 shows that the double concepts were coded very similarly to the overall coding for all of the causal map concepts and, as such, the doubles seem in line with the average. Where this is not the case is for person-group fit where this code seems to have used less regularly than for either the fit or misfit concepts. Conversely, culture seems to feature relatively frequently in the coding for the double concepts compared with the overall coding for the maps. However, the differences are not great and this may be due to the fact that these concepts were taken from all 38 maps, rather than focusing specifically on those people who fit well or consider themselves to misfit. The next stage of the analysis involved analysing the overlapping concepts on the eight misfits' maps, the results of which are shown in table 5.12. The double/overlapping concepts from the sixteen participants who said that they fitted very well at work were also analysed and the data are presented on the right hand side of table 5.12.

Table 5.11 Coding for the Maps Overall Compared with the Maps' Doubles

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	total	%	DOUBLES	%
PO	733	14.0	637	18.4	1370	15.7	158	15.1
PJ	1226	23.4	587	17.0	1813	20.8	211	20.2
PG	822	15.7	575	16.6	1397	16.1	132	12.6
PV	142	2.7	63	1.8	205	2.4	35	3.4
PS	348	6.6	387	11.2	735	8.4	83	8.0
PI	41	0.8	91	2.6	132	1.5	20	1.9
TOTAL	3312	63.1	2340	67.7	5652	65.0	639	61.2
AGE	14	0.3	20	0.6	34	0.4	2	0.2
TENURE	81	1.5	29	0.8	110	1.3	22	2.1
GENDER	5	0.1	7	0.2	12	0.1	2	0.2
RACE	1	0.0	5	0.1	6	0.1	1	0.1
SOCIO	51	1.0	64	1.9	115	1.3	42	4.0
RELIGION	4	0.1	4	0.1	8	0.1	4	0.4
EDUC	18	0.3	3	0.1	21	0.2	1	0.1
TOTAL	174	3.3	132	3.8	306	3.5	74	7.1
FIT C	106	2.0	55	1.6	161	1.9	17	1.6
LINKS C	307	5.9	124	3.6	431	5.0	75	7.2
LINKS O	174	3.3	91	2.6	265	3.0	34	3.3
SACR C	10	0.2	10	0.3	20	0.2	0	0.0
SACR O	420	8.0	180	5.2	600	6.9	50	4.8
TOTAL	1017	19.4	460	13.3	1477	17.0	176	16.9
P	428	8.2	234	6.8	662	7.6	83	8.0
CULT	38	0.7	56	1.6	94	1.1	33	3.2
exp	18	0.3	11	0.3	29	0.3	9	0.9
DRESS	12	0.2	8	0.2	20	0.2	3	0.3
HEALTH	9	0.2	6	0.2	15	0.2	3	0.3
WL BAL	1	0.0	4	0.1	5	0.1	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0	0	0.0
JE	1	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	507	9.7	322	9.3	829	9.5	131	12.5
NO CODE	235	4.5	201	5.8	436	5.0	24	2.3
Total	5245	100.0	3455	100.0	8700	100.0	1044	100.0

Table 5.12 The Eight Misfits' and Sixteen Fits' Double Concepts

CODE	8 Misfits' DOUBLES	%
PO	36	16.6
PJ	46	21.2
PG	23	10.6
PV	9	4.1
PS	7	3.2
PI	3	1.4
TOTAL	124	57.1
AGE	0	0.0
TENURE	4	1.8
GENDER	0	0.0
RACE	0	0.0
SOCIO	23	10.6
RELIGION	0	0.0
EDUC	0	0.0
TOTAL	27	12.4
FIT C	3	1.4
LINKS C	19	8.8
LINKS O	3	1.4
SACR C	0	0.0
SACR O	5	2.3
TOTAL	30	13.8
P	16	7.4
CULT	19	8.8
exp	0	0.0
DRESS	0	0.0
HEALTH	0	0.0
WL BAL	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0
language	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0
TOTAL	35	16.1
NO CODE	1	0.5
TOTAL	217	100.0

CODE	16 Fits' DOUBLES	%
PO	47	12.1
PJ	84	21.5
PG	55	14.1
PV	1	0.3
PS	19	4.9
PI	12	3.1
TOTAL	218	55.9
AGE	2	0.5
TENURE	2	0.5
GENDER	0	0.0
RACE	1	0.3
SOCIO	4	1.0
RELIGION	0	0.0
EDUC	0	0.0
TOTAL	9	2.3
FIT C	9	2.3
LINKS C	43	11.0
LINKS O	13	3.3
SACR C	0	0.0
SACR O	19	4.9
TOTAL	84	21.5
P	43	11.0
CULT	14	3.6
exp	5	1.3
DRESS	3	0.8
HEALTH	3	0.8
WL BAL	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0
language	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0
TOTAL	68	17.4
NO CODE	11	2.8
TOTAL	390	100.0

It is noteworthy that for the misfits' doubles, these are the concepts that, despite the participants perceiving themselves to be misfits, lead them to feel that they fit in some way

and to a certain extent. Similarly, for the participants who perceive themselves to fit well at work, the double concepts lead to perceptions of misfit as well as fitting in. Person-job and person-organisation fit factors again score highly in this analysis but it seems that person-group fit and socio-economic factors are also fairly commonly cited as on the one hand causing fit and on the other hand causing misfit perceptions. Links-community and cultural factors were also mentioned by the participants as leading to both fit and misfit.

For the 'perfect fit' participants, 21.5% of the factors relating both to fit and misfit on their causal maps apparently relate to person-job fit. This is again strikingly similar to the proportion of the misfits' double concepts being coded PJ. Overall, PE fit codes were used for just over half of the misfits' and fit participants' double concepts. Where there is a striking difference in the coding is in the use of the organisational demography codes and the job embeddedness factors. The demography codes are infrequently used but the socio-economic code is used for 10% of the misfit double concepts. Participants mentioned their upbringing and backgrounds in particular and how this led them to misfit but also how this led them to develop skills and interests which enabled them to fit in at work. There were also several references to individuals' cultural backgrounds and how these had had a dual affect on their fit perceptions, on the one hand making them different to others in the organisation and on the other hand giving them values which are helpful in their work.

The job embeddedness codes were used for 21.5% of the 16 perfect fit participants' double concepts. Many of the factors mentioned by the participants centred around their networks of family and friends.

5.19 The Uncoded Concepts

All of the frequency tables shown in the sections above and the tables given in appendices 9 and 10 have shown that the coders did not assign codes to some of the concepts on the participants' causal maps. This could indicate that the coding schedule was inadequate in that it did not cover the full range of factors mentioned by employees in

relation to their fit and misfit perceptions at work. The uncoded concepts are therefore discussed to clarify whether this is the case.

The number of concepts which were not assigned a code by the coders is shown on table 5.13. It would seem, given that there were more fit concepts than misfit concepts on the maps, that misfit concepts were relatively more difficult to code than fit concepts.

Table 5.13 Numbers of Uncoded Concepts

	DT	VA	PN
No. uncoded fit concepts	84	94	57
No. uncoded misfit concepts	71	80	50
Sub total	155	174	107
Excluding 74 head concepts	81	100	33
Accounting for 'double' concepts - **TOTAL**	**71**	**89**	**30**

There was some degree of overlap between the coders: there were 25 concepts that neither DT nor VA coded, 19 that neither VA or PN coded and 18 concepts that were not coded by either PN or DT. These concepts are shown below in tables 5.15, 5.16 and 5.17. The twelve concepts which were left uncoded by all three coders are shown first in table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Concepts with no assigned Codes

Participant	Fit/Misfit Concept	Tail/ Double	Concept
2	misfit	*	20 Government drive to get people back to work
5	fit	*	21 Have been through difficult times
6	fit/misfit	*#	10 [Serious] injury
6	fit/misfit	#	11 Disability
8	misfit	*	38 Moulds from [different continent]
9	misfit		39 It annoys me
24	fit	*	30 My father was a prime influence
24	fit		31 We were encouraged to be free spirits
24	fit	*	32 My mother worked morning to night
24	fit		33 Was not allowed to speak with a northern accent
32	fit		49 Started looking for other jobs
34	misfit		72 It's a puzzle

Key - * denotes root/tail concepts. # denotes a 'double' concept which is part of both a fit and misfit causal chain.

Table 5.15 Uncoded items for DT and VA

Participant	Fit/Misfit Concept	Tail/ Double	Concept
34	fit		90 Maybe I'll go back to [home country] and have a charity for young people
7	misfit		46 Not from experience
22	fit/misfit	#	28 Big fan of crosswords
34	misfit		17 Perhaps I should be like that
36	fit		16 Lost driving licence
36	fit		42 I wore [unusual garments] in the office
36	fit		85 Now that's paled into insignificance
6	fit/misfit	#	12 Migraines
6	fit/misfit	#	14 Time off sick
16	fit	*	39 You spend a long time at work
3	fit		50 Knocked confidence
34	misfit		71 You question yourself and ask 'where have I gone wrong?'
32	fit		50 She was sacked a week later but I'd been offered 2 jobs in the meantime
Plus the 12 concepts shown in table 5.14.			

Table 5.16 Uncoded Items for VA and PN

Participant	Fit/Misfit Concept	Tail/ Double	Concept
22	misfit	*	54 Challenging economic times
6	misfit		8 Gradually changed hands
9	misfit		44 When I first started job, I let my temper rule what I did
12	fit		39 Going to new employer
19	misfit	*	49 New store openings
26	fit		16 Housing is overarching in its impact on people's lives
8	misfit	*	11 The market's changed
Plus the 12 concepts shown in table 5.14.			

Table 5.17 Uncoded Items for PN and DT

Participant	Fit/Misfit Concept	Tail/ Double	Concept
37	fit		35 A couple work term-time only
37	fit		60 I like to go home & switch off
32	fit		45 Turning point
3	fit		48 Conversation with HR led to letter of apology
3	fit		56 2 ways of going: get angry and leave OR stay
28	misfit		64 A niggle, not really misfit
Plus the 12 concepts shown in table 5.14.			

There were few uncoded concepts considering the overall number of concepts on the participants' maps. Some of the concepts shown in tables 5.14 and 5.15 relate to the participants' health and cultural background. Overall however, the fact that there are so few uncoded concepts would seem to indicate that the coding schedule, with the inclusion of the new items, adequately covered the causes of fit and misfit discussed by the participants.

5.20 The New Codes

During the process of coding the causal maps, the three coders each felt that some of the codes did not reflect what was being spoken about by the participants. They therefore added the following codes to the coding schedule:

P	Personality
CULT	Cultural background/cultural influences
exp	Experience (usually experience gained in previous jobs)
DRESS	The styles and types of clothes worn at work
HEALTH	Generally to do with poor health rather than good health
WL BAL	Work-life balance
econ	Economic factors
fac	The facilities at work
language	Language
JE	Job embeddedness

Table 5.2 (which gives an overview of all of the causal map coding) shows that of these new codes, economic factors, facilities, language and JE were used only once each and these can therefore be discounted. Work-life balance was also infrequently used and this is likely to be because the job embeddedness codes capture the links between an individual's home and work lives. It is therefore not that work-life balance is not relevant but rather that it is better captured through the JE codes.

The first five new codes on the list above – personality, culture, experience, dress and health – were mentioned more frequently by the participants. Health was mentioned least frequently but still featured in 15 concepts on the causal maps and personality featured in 662 (7.2%) causal map concepts. Therefore, they seem to capture elements of people's perceptions of fit and misfit that are missing from multidimensional fit and job embeddedness.

Of these new items, the one relating to people's own nature or personality is the most surprising given the theoretical interactional underpinnings of the subject. This is because people talked about their personality completely separate to their surroundings as a

factor shaping their fit or misfit. For example, one of the concepts on participant 1's map read "I think I look at everything a bit too gloomily". Participant 5 spoke about being "very extroverted" and "very outgoing" and went on to say "I'm not really a negative sort of person" and that despite having gone through difficult times "you pick yourself up and get on with it". Participants 7 and 10 both spoke about their "easy going nature", which allowed them to overcome testing situations. Participant 18 said "you've got to take me as I am" and "if I've got something to say, I'll say it". Participant 33 admitted "I can be overly sensitive" and one of the study's youngest interviewees, participant 35 said, "I used to be very shy when I started work". These examples all show how people attributed an aspect of their own being, usually a factor associated with personality, as a causal factor to their fit or misfit. All five factors from the Five Factor Theory of Personality (McCrae & John, 1992) (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience) were referred to by participants as impacting on their fit at work. In fit research (as elaborated in chapter 3), scholars emphasise the interaction, match or congruence between the individual and the environment, as Schneider (2007, pp. 603 - 604) notes: "In brief, we now know that personality matters, and that in combination with the situation in which the personality is enacted, that understanding of the role of personality at work is both conceptually and practically meaningful at numerous levels of analysis". It is therefore noteworthy that a high number of references were made by individuals to their personality traits in general, rather than to how their personality relates to their fit with the organisation, colleagues, vocation or job.

Culture was also added to the coding schedule because several participants made reference to the culture in which they had grown up as explaining why they did or did not fit at work. The coders distinguished this from the JE dimension of fit-community, which covers the extent to which people feel that the community in which they currently live and the climate and activities offered, match them well. Links-community and sacrifice-community also focus on individuals' current community and family environments. For

example, participant 24 said "I am a northerner" and that had led her to be very direct and honest with people. This participant said "I'm proud of my roots but I've recognised that I have to be softer at times" so that she could fit in with her southern colleagues' way of speaking to each other. Participant 25 spoke about moving to Buckinghamshire from a mainland European country. She noted that the "culture, people and atmosphere" were completely different in her home country compared to the UK and that "in Milton Keynes, no one included me".

Participant 26 spoke about her family background, with one non-British parent and family overseas making it difficult to fit in socially. This cultural background had led her to misfit on the one hand but it had had a positive effect on her fit at work as she was able to empathise with the disadvantaged groups that she worked with. Similarly, participant 34 related how he had grown up in a different part of the world and how this had shaped his values and had an impact on his fit at work.

'Experience' was also added to the coding schedule because often participants spoke of their previous work experience in relation to their current experiences at work. As an example, participant 28 spoke about her previous senior role in a school and the poor experience she had with the hours of work and colleagues. This provided the individual with a comparison against which to judge her fit in her current job. Participant 37 related how her previous experience in sales and marketing and then in a school, led her to find a job where she fitted better. She said; "I realised that I loved computer work and wanted an office job". Many of the study's participants related examples of how their previous experience influenced their fit perceptions but often, because individuals related their previous experience to how this made them fit or misfit in their job or organisation, such concepts tended to be coded with PJ or PO fit. The number of times that the coders used 'experience' as a code therefore does not fully reflect the extent to which participants contextualised their reasons for fitting and misfitting by relating back to past events.

The interviewees also often mentioned 'dress' as affecting how they perceived themselves to fit in. Only one of the coders added dress to the coding schedule as, similar to 'experience', dress often related to individuals' PO fit. Participants 19, 23, 27, 28, 33, 36, 37 and 38 all mentioned clothing, for example: "We have similar uniforms" and "a choice of what to wear" so "you can still be an individual" (participant 19); "The uniform we wear makes us fit in and part of the team" (participant 23); "I dress differently to all of my colleagues" and "Because I don't wear the same 'uniform', I now feel junior" (participant 27). Speaking about a previous role, participant 28 noted: "I looked very different to them in their twinsets" and in her current role, "We're all quite informal. We wear what's comfortable." Similarly, participant spoke about a previous role: "After a while, I knew what people watched, wore, talked about. I adapted myself. I wore a suit like people of a certain level. Here [in present job] I tend to wear separates to work." Participant 37 also observed that people dressed according to their level in the organisation, saying, "You should dress according to your position. I wear what others in this position wear." The act of trying to fit in through wearing particular clothes was noted by participant 36 who said "My manager asked why I wasn't wearing [unusual clothing]. I told him I'm trying to 'act normal' because people talk" and participant 33 said "I was told to conform and not to wear jeans on Fridays."

To these participants, clothes seemed to be an outward expression how they identified with the group. This is in keeping with Wheeler et al's MDF model (see section 3.6) which draws on social identity theory to posit that individuals will form a social identity based on the similarities that they share with others in the social group.

'Health' was the final code which the team felt was missing from the coding schedule. Concepts on participants' maps that were coded with 'health' related to physical and mental illness but excluded disabilities and impairments which affected people's work. For example, participant 9 spoke about dyslexia having had an adverse effect on his

promotion opportunities: "I want to advance but dyslexia holds me back". The dyslexia impacted on this individual's ability to perform his job and was therefore coded PJ fit.

Individuals mentioned their health surprisingly often in relation to how they fitted at work. This was surprising in that the PE fit, organisational demography and JE literatures rarely mention health, apart from job-related stress which tends to be predicted to result from misfit. Yang, Che and Spector (2008, pp. 567 - 568) in their study of PE fit, stress and wellbeing note: "...person and environment work as joint determinants of employees' well-being, with the misfit between person and environment as the cause of strains".

This was borne out by participant 28, who spoke about the impact that misfitting in her former job had on her health. "I didn't fit where I was before.... I became quite ill". Others, who experienced serious illness not caused by work, recounted the effects that this had had on their fit and misfit. Participant 6 had been involved in a serious road accident and as a result, he had been assigned different duties at work. Speaking of his colleagues, he said "some liked it, some didn't" with about half of his colleagues being supportive. However, the support of his manager and HR professionals, led to this person feeling that he did fit at work.

Participant 36 similarly suffered from a long-lasting and serious illness. She also reported that "some people thought that I shouldn't be at work" and that "some people were nasty", which were coded as negative PG fit. However, a "supportive network of people" and the adjustments made by HR and managers helped this individual to change her perception of her fit at work. Whereas she had been looking for other jobs because her manager left and the "petty rules" and "lack of facilities" at work, "now that's paled into insignificance". People's ill health can lead to both fit and misfit perceptions and would appear to be a trigger event or shock (Lee, et al., 1999) but rather than leading to the individual contemplating leaving work, it can also work in a positive way in that perceptions of fit can ensue.

Looking back at the uncoded concepts listed in tables 5.13 – 5.17, the majority of these relate to the new codes of personality, cultural background, experience and health and could have been coded as such.

5.21 Conclusion

This chapter described the steps taken in the preliminary analysis of the causal maps' coding; starting with a broad overview of all of the concepts in all of the maps, separating out the fit and misfit concepts, focusing on the root causes of fit and misfit and finally, analysing the data from those people who stated that they were a good fit at work and those who declared themselves to misfit.

The analysis showed that a large proportion of the concepts appearing on individuals' fit and misfit causal maps can be coded with the PE fit dimensions and that PO, PJ and PG in particular seem to be highly important in explaining both fit and misfit perceptions with PS also playing a lesser role and PI and PV being relatively unimportant. However, PO was shown to be used more in coding misfit concepts than fit concepts whereas PJ conversely was used more often in coding fit concepts than misfit concepts. Job embeddedness dimensions were used less often than the PE fit dimensions in coding the data but where these were used, they were more often seen in relation to fit than misfit. The organisational demography codes were infrequently used and seem to play less of a part in people's fit perceptions.

When the overall root causes of fit and misfit were analysed, this showed that PE fit codes accounted for 66% of the codes used for the misfit tails as compared with 58.4% of the fit tails whereas job embeddedness was at the root of 21.4% of the fit concepts (as compared to 12.6% of the misfit root causes). Very similar results were achieved when the root causes for the 'perfect fits' were compared with the root causes for the eight self-declared misfits. This suggests that although the multi-dimensional fit factors play a large role in people's fit perceptions, their embeddedness in their organisation and

fundamentally their wider community seems to play a key role in how well they fit at work.

Of the additional codes that were generated by the coders, personality, culture, experience, dress and health capture perceptions held by some participants that cause them to feel that they fit in or misfit at work. Individuals' personality traits are well known to factor in people's experiences of fit (e.g. Schneider, et al., 1998). That individuals mention dress would reflect that for these people, uniforms and business dress make them feel part of an in-group or out-group (Hornsey & Jetten, 2004). 'Experience' would seem to reflect the temporal nature of fit (e.g. Sekiguchi, 2004) and the addition of 'culture' and 'health' indicates how broadly people contextualise their fit, perhaps further than is suggested by the JE codes.

Chapter 6 takes the data analysis a step further by providing an in-depth analysis in relation to the research question and the propositions which arose out of the literature review. It was noted in this chapter that one of its limitations was that by using the coding from all three coders and grouping the codes that the figures were inflated. This limitation is addressed in chapter 6 by using the coders' agreed codes for each concept. Further, whether concepts are positively or negatively phrased is explored and radial diagrams are used to show how patterns of fit and misfit vary between groups of participants.

Chapter 6: Data Analysis

6.1 Introduction

In chapter 5, the data were described, showing the number of times that the codes had been used in the causal maps overall, the fit and misfit maps specifically and then, further separating out the tail concepts from the rest of the causal chains.

The PE fit codes were most frequently used to code the causal maps with PJ being used most for fit concepts and PO being the most commonly used code in relation to misfit concepts. The job embeddedness codes were far less frequently used but where they were, this was in relation to individuals' fit perceptions. The codes which the three coders added to the coding schedule, with the exception of personality, were infrequently used as were the demographic codes, suggesting that the PE fit dimensions explain fit perceptions well.

This chapter moves beyond the broad overview the data presented in chapter 5 to give in-depth analysis of the data in relation to the research questions and propositions posited in the literature review (chapter 3). To achieve this, the analysis is divided into two sections: section 1 focuses on the structure of the causal maps and in section 2 their content is analysed. In section 1, the coded tree-maps of fit and misfit for each participant are shown, detailing the positive, negative and neutral concepts on each causal chain. From these maps an analysis is made of whether the causal chains leading to fit tend to consist of positive concepts (and negative concepts for misfit) and whether causal chains are comprised of concepts of one fit dimension.

In section 2, radial diagrams are used to analyse whether fit and misfit perceptions are caused by the same dimensions of PE fit and in addition, the job embeddedness and demographic factors on individuals' maps are analysed to assess whether and how these contribute to perceptions of fit and misfit.

6.2 Research Question and Propositions

The review of the literature (chapter 3) showed that there has been little focus on misfit within the PE fit literature and that how and why people and organisations misfit is little understood (Wheeler, et al., 2005). It is however known that when people do not fit in the organisational setting, it leads to detrimental outcomes such as stress for the individual (Edwards & Shipp, 2007) and staff turnover (Wheeler, et al., 2007). As such, misfit is a topic worthy of study (e.g. Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007) and as argued in chapter 3, investigating the differences between fit and misfit is particularly apposite. The research questions and propositions which are set out below therefore focus on the similarities and differences between fit and misfit with a view to enhancing knowledge and understanding of PE misfit. The sections that follow show how the data were analysed in relation to each of the propositions.

As noted in chapter 3, the research questions emerging from the PE fit literature are:

- What are the differences and similarities between person-environment fit and misfit?
- To what extent do the extant terms in the literature explain fit and misfit?
- Is misfit the polar opposite to fit?

The PE fit literature has tended to posit that misfit occurs where there is a lack of congruence between the person and the environment and as such, misfit is assumed to arise out of a mismatch between the individual's and the organisation's values, personality, skills or needs for example (see section 3.7). Misfit and fit are therefore assumed to be affected by the same PE fit dimensions. These dimensions of fit (PJ, PO, PV fit etc) have been shown to be independent of each other (e.g. Kristof-Brown, et al., 2002; Wheeler, et al., 2005) and the first research proposition therefore proposes that :

P1 Each causal chain influencing either fit or misfit will be comprised of concepts of one dimension (i.e. a PJ chain or a PO chain) because extant measures of fit/misfit assume independence of dimensions.

Fit has been shown to have positive outcomes for individuals whereas misfit is seen as negative, causing individuals to leave organisations (e.g. Schneider, 1987). The second research proposition therefore suggests that:

P2 Causal chains will consist of either positively or negatively phrased concepts:

- P2a Positively phrased concepts will connect to the fit head
- P2b Negatively phrased concepts will connect to the misfit head
- P2c Neutrally phrased concepts will connect to fit and misfit heads evenly

The review of the literature in chapter 3 showed that the way in which people fit with individual facets of the organisation has been studied in-depth. However, there have been recent studies (Edwards & Billsberry, 2010; Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Wheeler, et al., 2005) to show that people fit with multiple aspects of their working environment including the job, vocation, organisation, teams and individual co-workers. Drawing on this research, the third and fourth research propositions propose that:

P3 Fit and misfit are multi-dimensional, i.e. they are caused by multiple factors:

- P3a by the same dimensions
- P3b in the same proportions

P4 Fit and misfit are caused by the same dimensions of PE fit:

- P4a Person-Organisation Fit
- P4b Person-Job Fit

P4c Person-Vocation Fit

P4d Person-Supervisor Fit

P4e Person-Group Fit

P4f Person-Individual Fit

In order to address propositions 1 and 2, the structure of the causal maps is analysed to assess whether causal chains consist of similarly coded and positive or negative concepts. For propositions 3 and 4, the content of the causal maps is scrutinised. The data were analysed at the individual level and for the group of participants overall: those who considered themselves to misfit, those who perceived that they fitted well at work and the other participants who scored themselves in between fit and misfit on the post-interview questionnaire.

6.3 Using the Agreed Coding

In the previous chapter, the coding assigned to the causal maps by the three coders was amalgamated. It was noted in section 5.11 that by using the code assigned to each of the causal map concepts by each of the coders, the frequency with which each code was used was inflated. Therefore, for the analyses in this chapter, the codes agreed by all of the coders (or the majority) were used. For example, where participant 1 referred to the organisation's "bureaucratic culture" and said that this had an impact on his misfit perceptions, all three coders coded this as PO fit. This code was then transferred onto participant 1's causal map, replacing "bureaucratic culture". The same process was followed for each concept on each participant's causal map. Thus, where two or more coders agreed on the coding, this code was used but where there was no agreement on the coding, all three codes were input onto the causal map. These causal maps, where the codes replace the verbatim comments, can be seen in appendix 11.

Additionally, each concept on each causal map was checked to assess whether it was positively, negatively or neutrally phrased. They were colour coded with red denoting negative, green showing positive and yellow indicating neutral concepts.

Section 1 The Structure of the Causal Maps

6.4 Propositions 1 and 2

P1 Each causal chain influencing either fit or misfit will be comprised of concepts of one dimension (i.e. a PJ chain or a PO chain) because extant measures of fit/misfit assume independence of dimensions.

P2 Causal chains will consist of either positively or negatively phrased concepts:

- P2a Positively phrased concepts will connect to the fit head
- P2b Negatively phrased concepts will connect to the misfit head
- P2c Neutrally phrased concepts will connect to fit and misfit heads evenly

To address these propositions, the causal map data for each participant is presented and analysed. The full causal maps which show the participants' verbatim comments are given in the confidential addendum to this thesis (which is available only to the examiners). The same causal maps are shown in appendix 11 and these show the coding for each map rather than the participants' comments. The causal chains leading to fit and misfit from each participant's map are shown below and are ordered according to whether the individuals considered themselves to 1 – misfit, 2 – more misfit than fit, 3 – neither, 4 – more fit than misfit or 5 – fit.

The maps shown are 'tree maps', created in Decision Explorer. Such maps start with a single concept and for those shown below, the head concepts of fit and misfit were selected. A tree map shows "all of the inward or outward links in layers" (Banxia, 2002, p. 92) and as such, are useful for showing all of the causal chains leading to each of the head concepts.

Each of the chains was analysed to determine the number of concepts on each chain and how many of these were similarly coded. Chains can be difficult to isolate as many inter-link and a chain was therefore determined to start at a tail concept and finish at the head concept (either fit or misfit), ensuring that all concepts were taken into account. Although proposition 1 states that chains will comprise only one dimension of fit, it was recognised there may be instances where concepts were erroneously coded or where there were interlopers on the causal chains. Taking an absolute approach, where 100% of the concepts needed to be similarly coded in order to meet the research proposition, was therefore considered to be too strict an approach. The chains were consequently analysed to assess what proportion of each chain consisted of just one dimension. For example, a causal chain consisting of PO – PO – PO – PO – PO is 100% the same. A causal chain coded PO – PV – PO – PJ – PI – PO has 50% the same (PO) concepts. The chains were analysed to assess whether they consisted of concepts that were 100% consistently coded, 75% (or more) similar, 66% (or more) the same, 50% (or more) the same, less than 50% the same, less than 33% similar, less than 25% similar or completely different (i.e. 0% the same). The result of this analysis is given in table 6.1.

The second and third columns on table 6.1 show how many of the concepts on the chains were 100% the same. Where there was only one concept on the chain, this is shown in the '1 concept, 100%' column and there were 25 such single concept chains in the participants' causal maps. Additionally, there were 84 causal chains which consisted of more than one concept with the same code. Of these, 40 chains consisted of only two

concepts and there were therefore 44 chains (7.3%) on the causal maps which were more than two concepts long and where all of the concepts were similarly coded.

This table is referred to more closely in the following sections, where the causal chains are shown firstly for all of the participants who considered themselves to misfit or more-misfit than fit, then for the so-called 'in between' participants who neither strongly felt that they fitted or misfitted at work and lastly the causal chains are shown for those participants who perceived that they fitted well at work.

Table 6.1 Proportions of Similar Concepts on the Causal Chains

	1 concept, 100%	100%	≥ 75%	≥ 66%	≥ 50%	< 50%	≤ 33%	≤ 25%	0%	TOTAL
Misfits' fit chains	5	10	7	10	16	6	5	0	4	63
Inbetweens' fit chains	4	25	21	10	21	21	5	3	11	121
Perfect fits' fit chains	2	20	24	19	55	23	18	5	12	178
TOTAL	11	55	52	39	92	50	28	8	27	362
Misfits' misfit chains	6	8	14	3	21	11	4	4	5	76
Inbetweens' misfit chains	4	11	9	11	22	27	9	7	5	105
Perfect fits' misfit chains	4	10	4	2	14	10	7	2	4	57
TOTAL	14	29	27	16	57	48	20	13	14	238
GRAND TOTAL - ALL CHAINS	25	84	79	55	149	98	48	21	41	600

PERCENTAGES										
	1 concept, 100%	100%	≥ 75%	≥ 66%	≥ 50%	< 50%	≤ 33%	≤ 25%	0%	TOTAL %
Misfits' fit chains %	7.9	15.9	11.1	15.9	25.4	9.5	7.9	0.0	6.3	100.0
Inbetweens' fit chains %	3.3	20.7	17.4	8.3	17.4	17.4	4.1	2.5	9.1	100.0
Perfect fits' fit chains %	1.1	11.2	13.5	10.7	30.9	12.9	10.1	2.8	6.7	100.0
TOTAL %	3.0	15.2	14.4	10.8	25.4	13.8	7.7	2.2	7.5	100.0
Misfits' misfit chains %	7.9	10.5	18.4	3.9	27.6	14.5	5.3	5.3	6.6	100.0
Inbetweens' misfit chains %	3.8	10.5	8.6	10.5	21.0	25.7	8.6	6.7	4.8	100.0
Perfect fits' misfit chains %	7.0	17.5	7.0	3.5	24.6	17.5	12.3	3.5	7.0	100.0
TOTAL %	5.9	12.2	11.3	6.7	23.9	20.2	8.4	5.5	5.9	100.0
GRAND TOTAL - ALL CHAINS %	4.2	14.0	13.2	9.2	24.8	16.3	8.0	3.5	6.8	100.0

6.4.1 The Misfits' Causal Maps – Chains leading to Fit

There were 8 participants who considered themselves to misfit or more misfit than fit. Participants 1, 8 and 27 perceived themselves to misfit. Participants 2, 12, 24, 26 and 29 ranked themselves as 2 on the scale, indicating that they more misfitted than fitted at work. Maps showing the causal chains leading to fit for these participants are shown below. There were no fit concepts on participant 2's map.

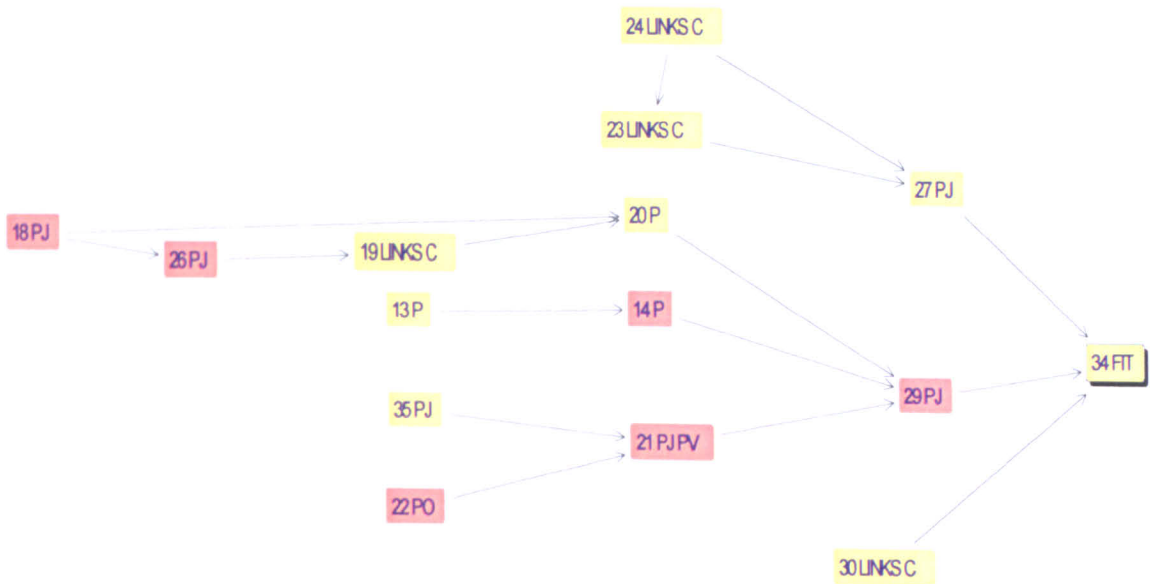


Figure 6.1 Participant 1 (misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

Figure 6.2 Participant 8 (misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

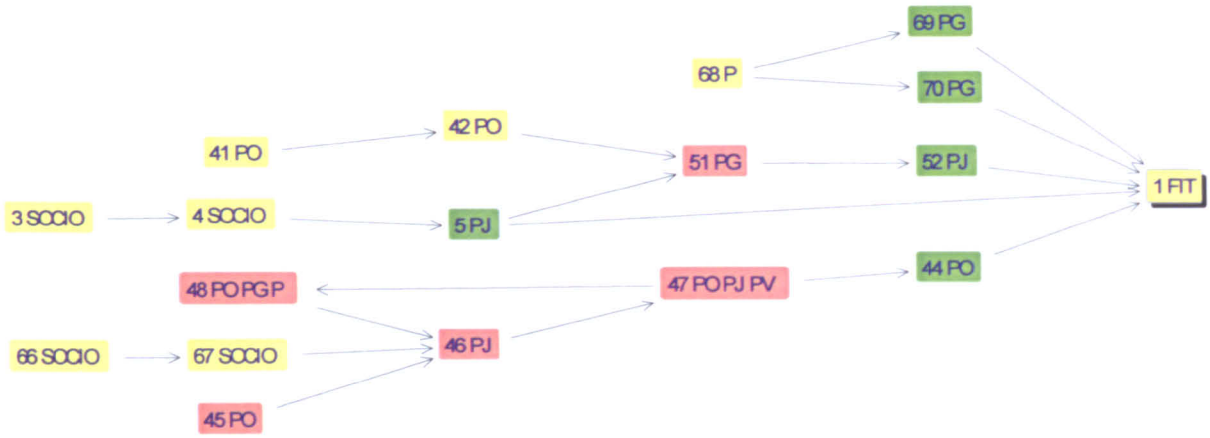


Figure 6.3 Participant 27 (misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

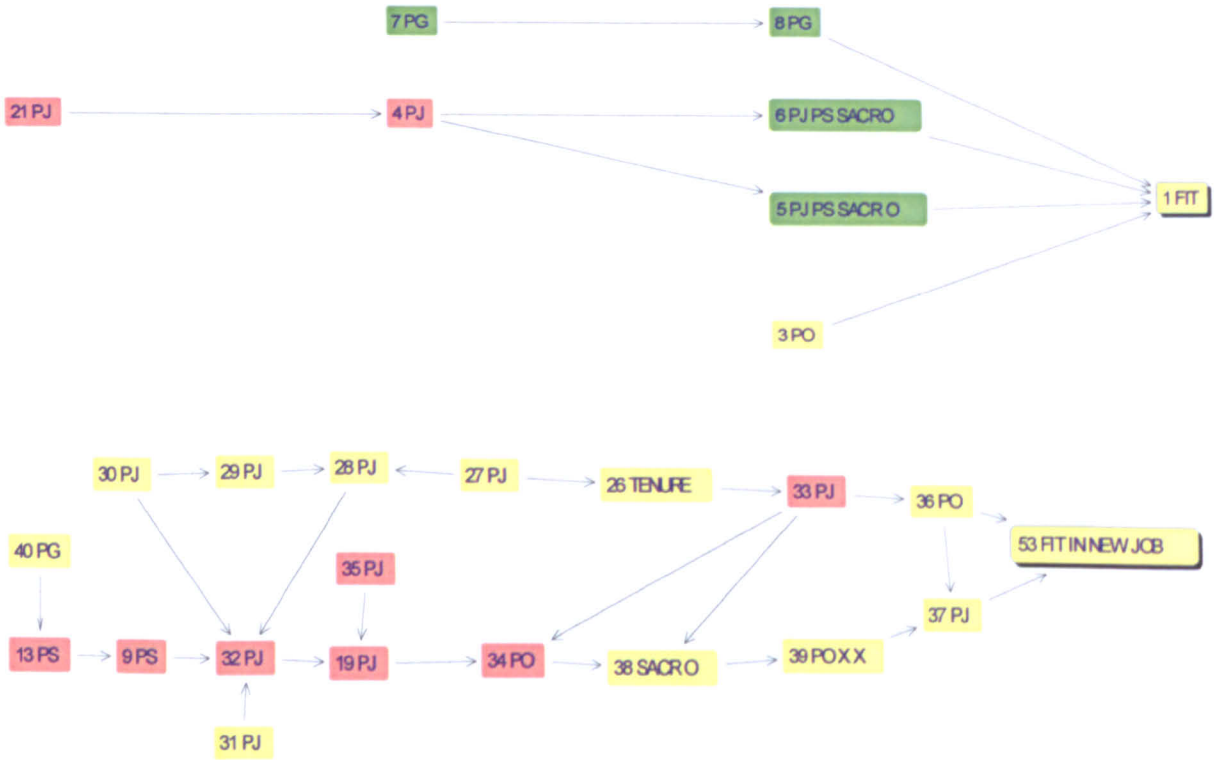


Figure 6.4 Participant 12 (more misfit than fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit and Fit in New Job

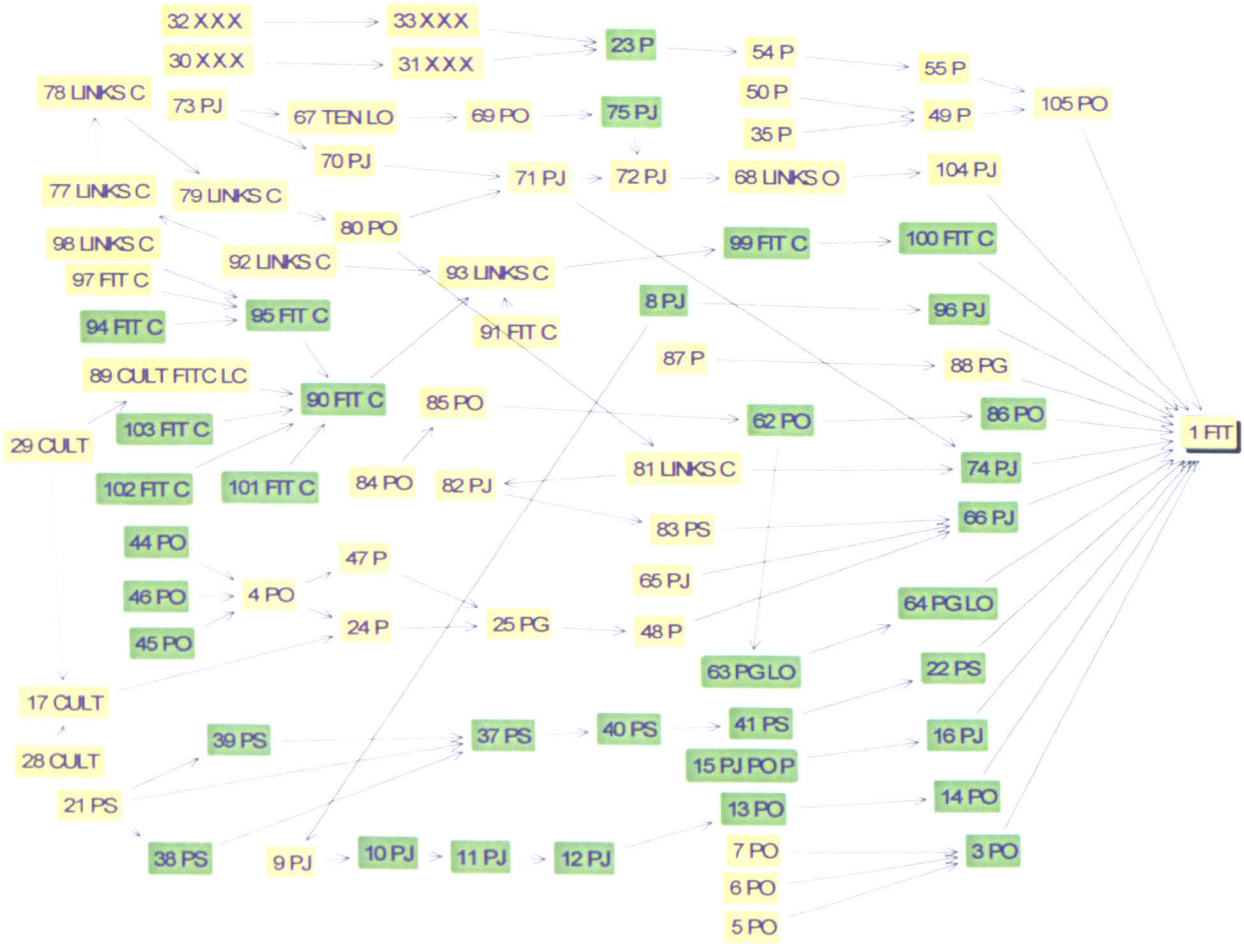


Figure 6.5 Participant 24 (more misfit than fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

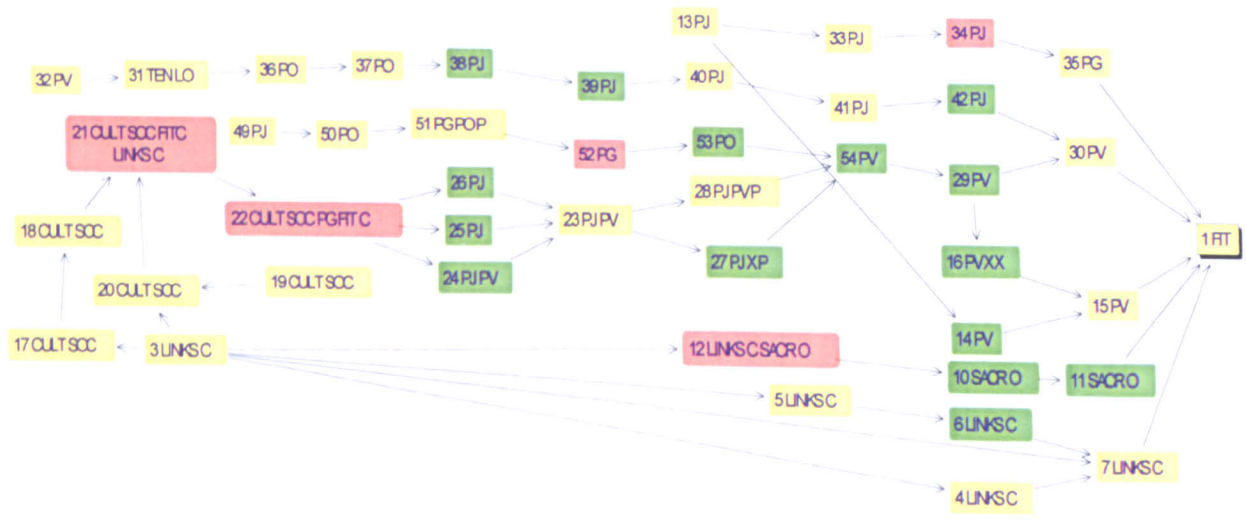


Figure 6.6 Participant 26 (more misfit than fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

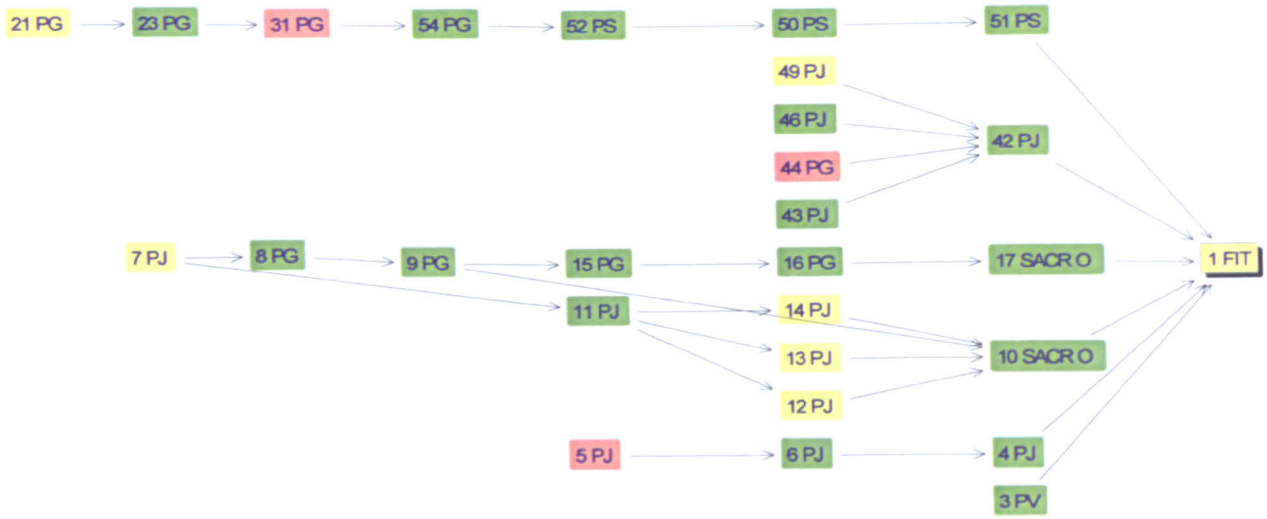


Figure 6.7 Participant 29 (more misfit than fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

The first three maps shown above (figures 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3) are for the participants who rated themselves as misfits on the scale. These are simple tree maps with few concepts and links. The causal chains are short, particularly for participant 8, where the longest chain has only two concepts. For the other two participants who considered themselves to misfit, the longest chains are 5 concepts long. Positive, negative and neutral concepts appear on the three maps although figure 6.1 has no positive concepts and figure 6.2 has no negative concepts. The causal chains consist of a mixture of different codes and the only chains which consist of a single dimension are three chains which contain a single concept.

The tree maps for the participants who rated themselves as 'more misfit than fit' (figures 6.4 to 6.7) are more varied and figure 6.5 particularly stands out as being different from the rest in terms of its complexity and the number of concepts it contains. This map is both 'wide' and 'deep' in that there are 27 tail concepts initiating causal chains leading into the head and these chains consist of up to 8 concepts. The chains are also complex in that several of the chains feed into each other. This complex map has five chains where all of the concepts are coded with the same PE fit dimension: three two-concept PO fit chains at the base of the map, a two-concept PJ fit chain (65, PJ – 66, PJ) and longer, 7 concept

PS fit chain in the lower third of the map. This was the longest single-dimension chain in this group of maps.

Table 6.1, in the row 'misfits' fit chains', shows that there were a total of 63 chains leading to the fit head concept in these participants' causal maps of which 5 were single concept, single dimension chains (7.9%) and 10 were chains consisting of only one code (15.9%). As noted above, participant 24's (figure 6.5) seven concept chain of PS fit dimensions was the longest of these and the only other chain with more than 2 concepts on it was a three concept PJ fit chain in figure 6.7. There were however a further 7 chains where 75% or more of the concepts were the same and 10 chains where more than two-thirds of the chains' concepts were similarly coded. Taken together, of the 63 chains, 32 therefore had chains consisting of 66% or more similar concepts: roughly half (50.8%) of the causal chains. Few of the chains were made up of completely differently coded concepts (4 chains (6.3%) or where less than a third of the concepts were similarly coded (5 chains (7.9%). Many of the chains (34.9%) fell between the extremes, consisting of concepts which were more than 33% similar but less than 66% the same (i.e. the $\geq$ 50% and < 50% categories combined).

Given that these are maps showing the factors that make people fit from a group of participants who state that they do not fit, it is not surprising that their maps are, with the exception of participant 24, simple, sparse and not overwhelmingly positive. The causal chains leading to misfit for these participants are shown below.

6.4.2 The Misfits' Causal Maps – Chains leading to Misfit

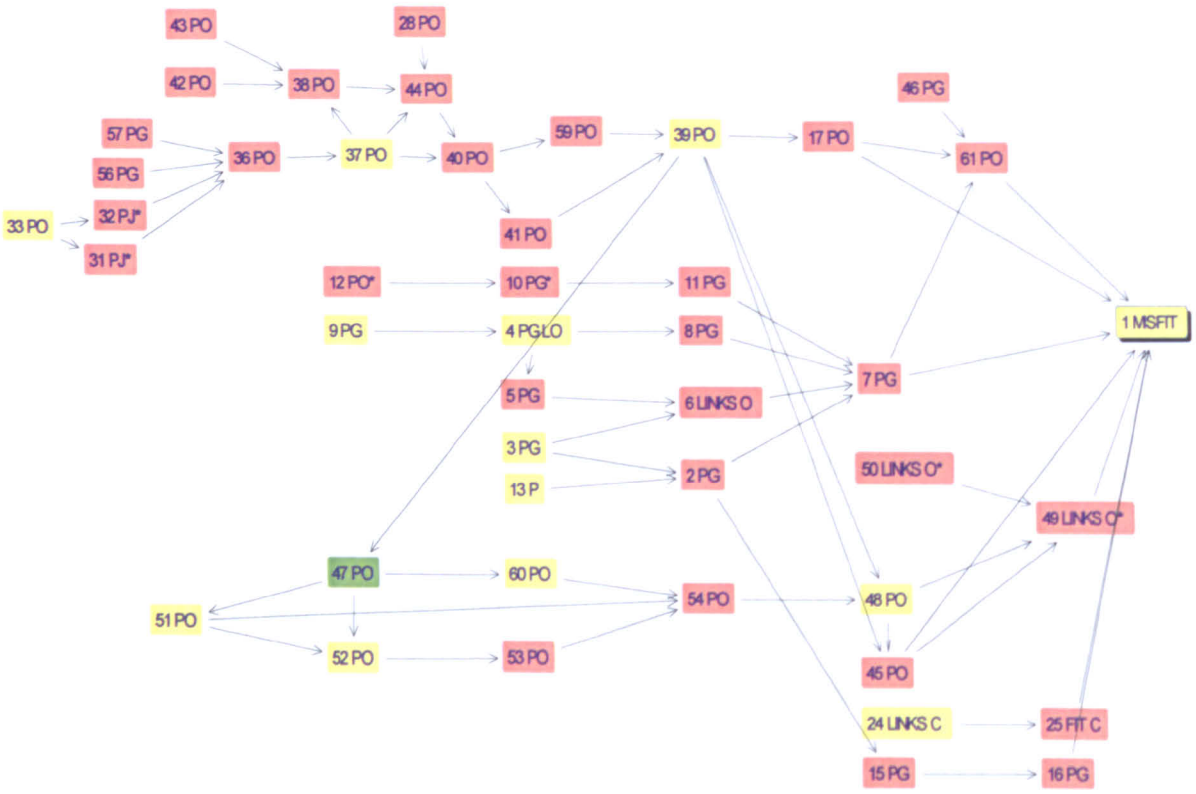


Figure 6.8 Participant 1 (misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

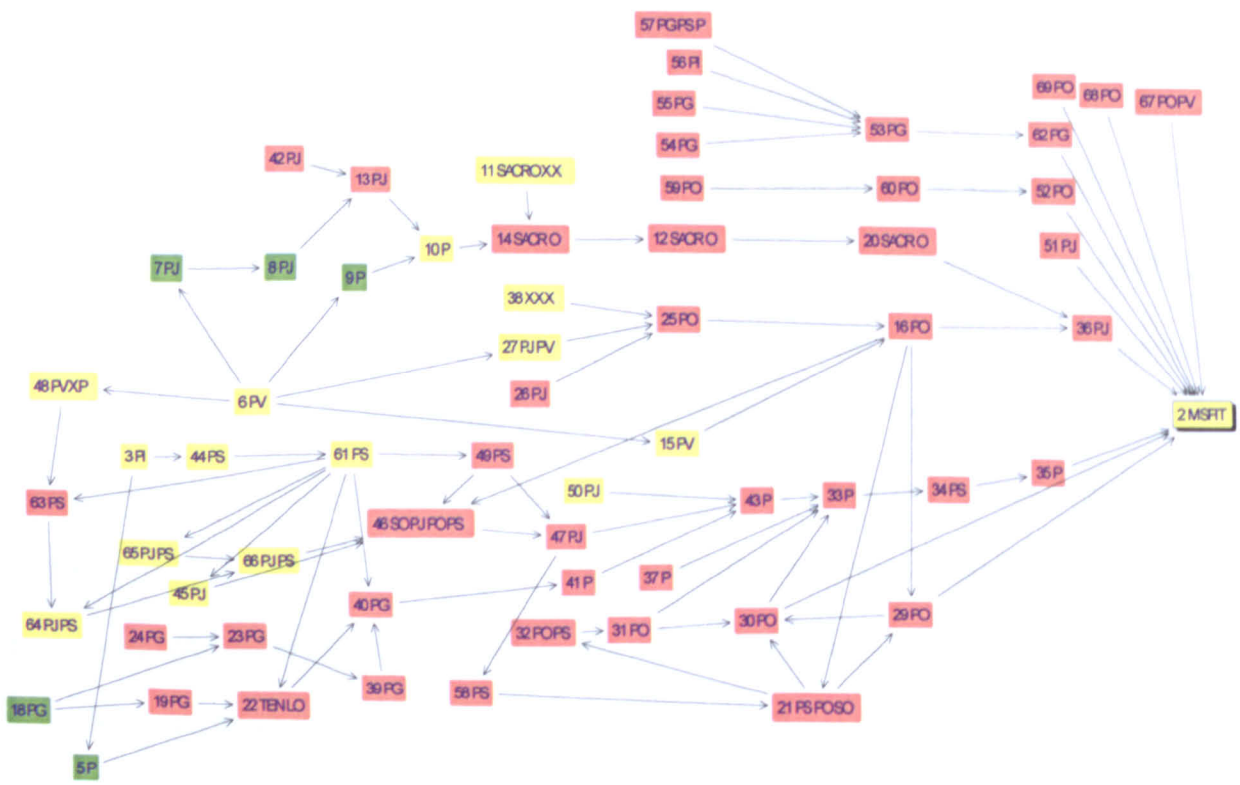


Figure 6.9 Participant 8 (misfit) – Causal chains leading to Misfit

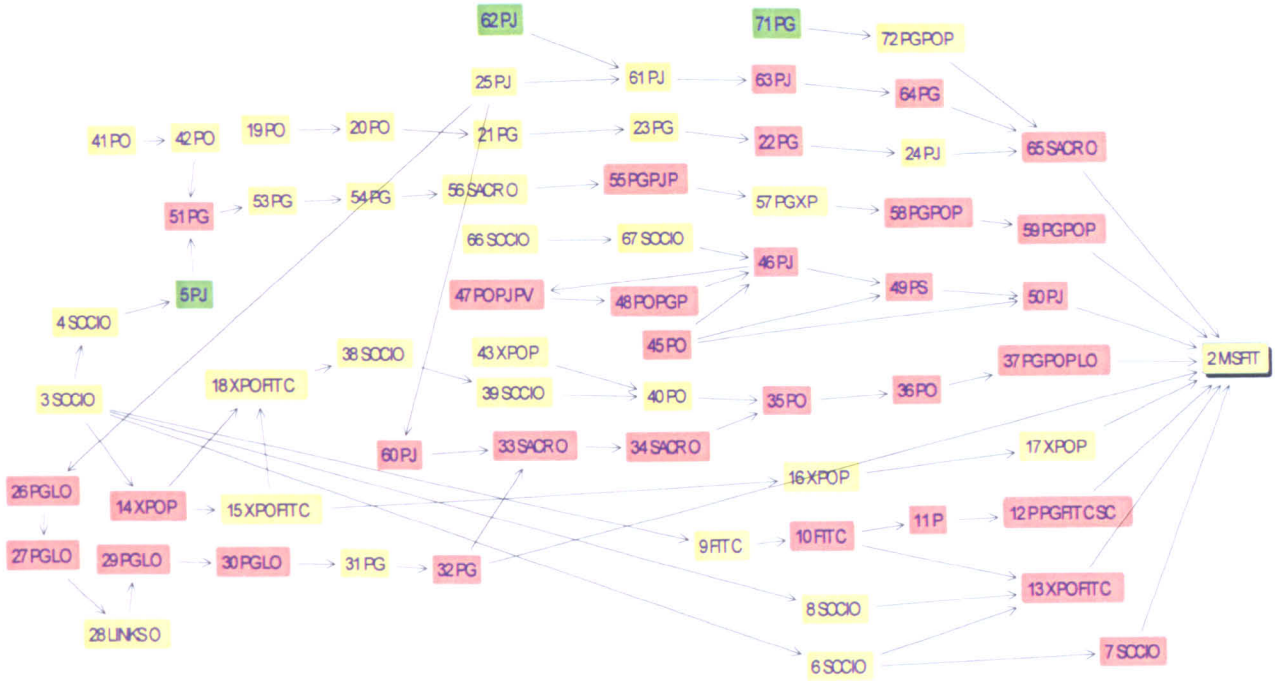


Figure 6.10 Participant 27 (misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

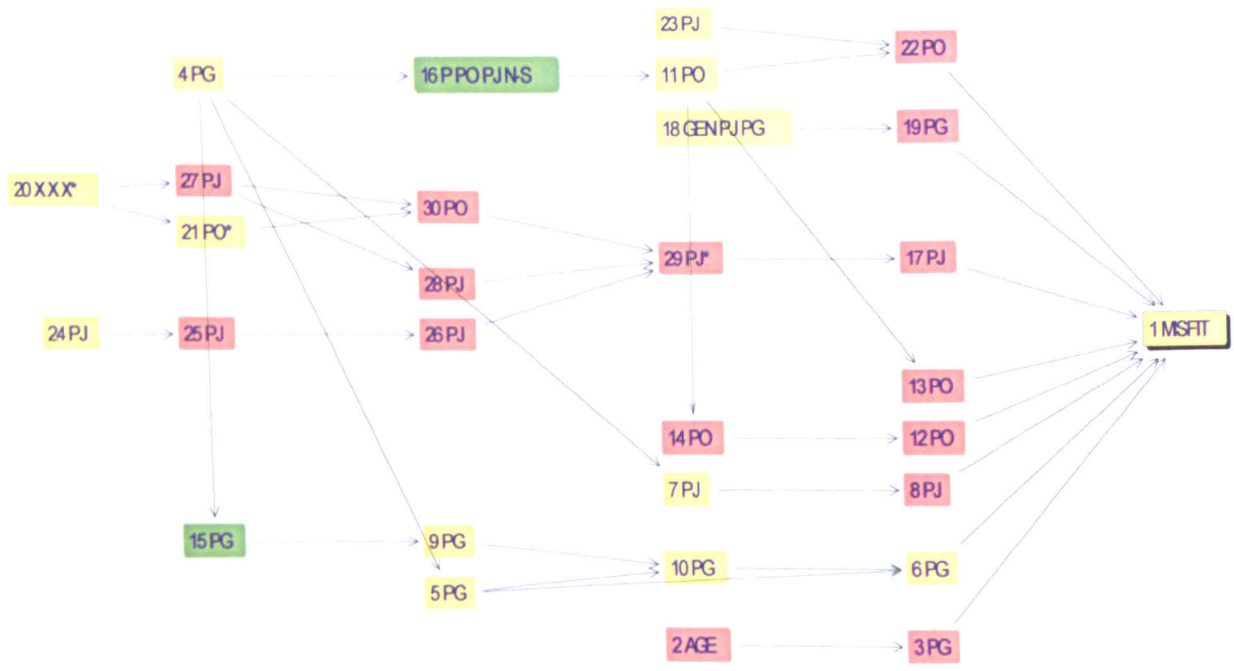


Figure 6.11 Participant 2 (more misfit than fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

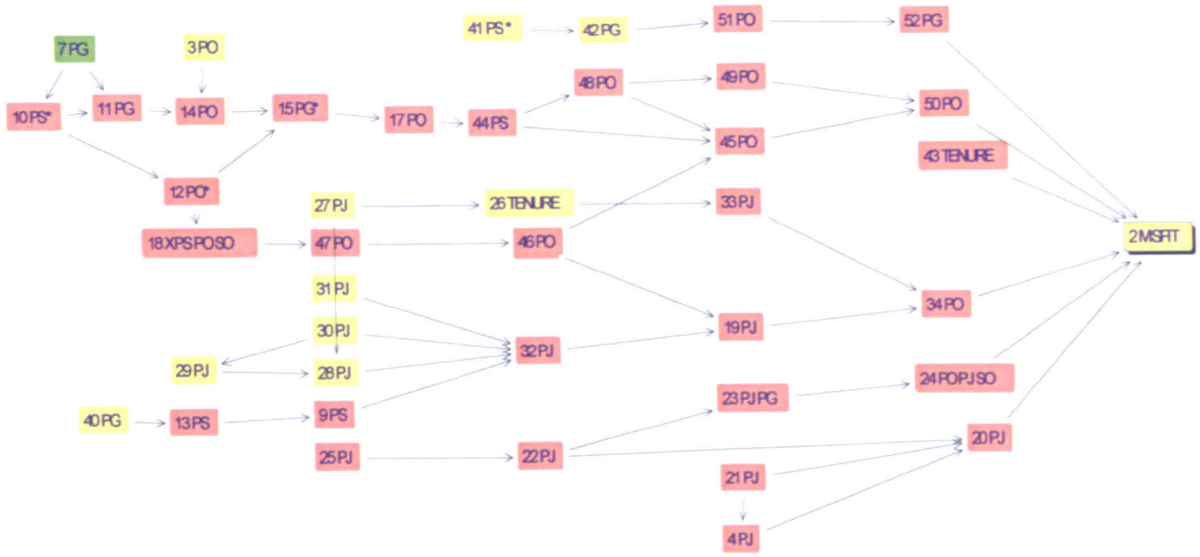


Figure 6.12 Participant 12 (more misfit than fit) - Causal Chains leading to Misfit

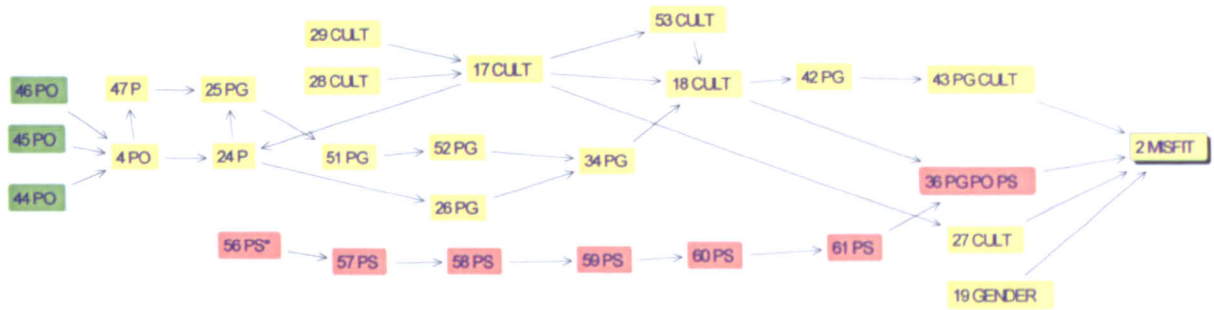


Figure 6.13 Participant 24 (more misfit than fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

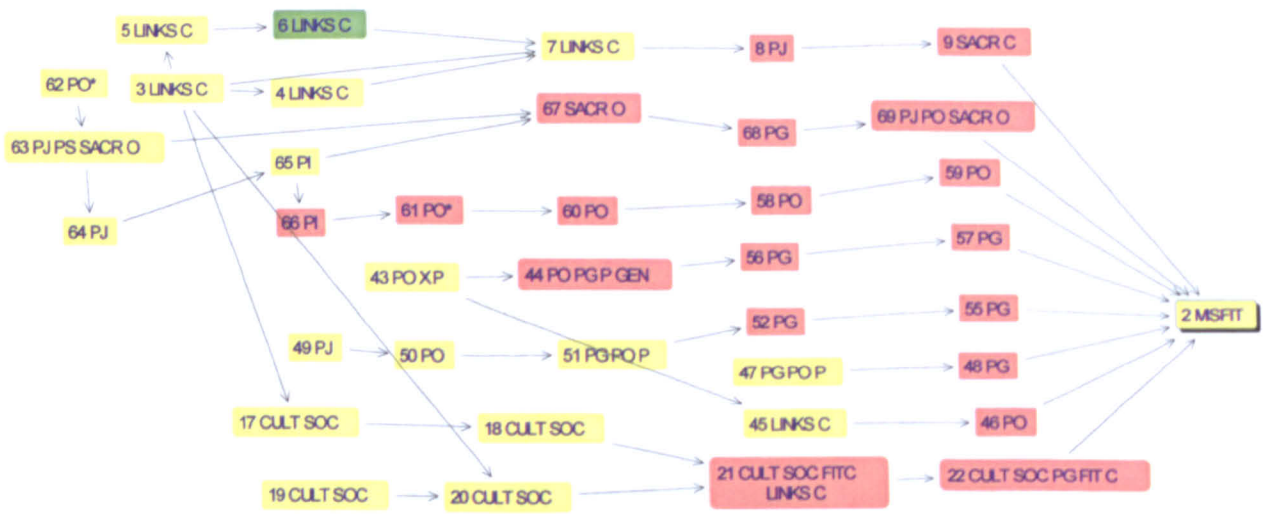


Figure 6.14 Participant 26 (more misfit than fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

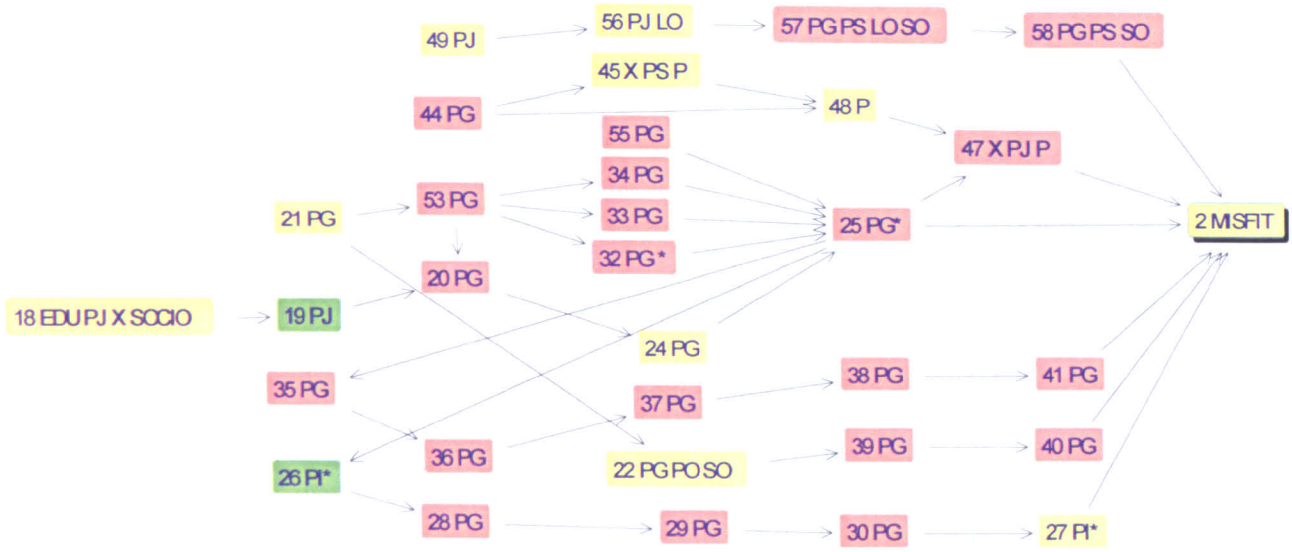


Figure 6.15 Participant 29 (more misfit than fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

The first three diagrams above (figures 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10) show the tree maps for those participants who ranked themselves 1 on the misfit – fit scale. These participants' misfit tree maps are more complex than their fit maps, consisting of more concepts and causal chains, which reflects that they had more factors causing them to misfit than fit at work. The maps consist predominantly of negative and neutral concepts, although figure 6.8 has one positive concept, figure 6.9 has five and figure 6.10 has three. For participant 1, the positive organisational factor was his department's international reputation but he noted how the independence that they had striven for had led to the department not fitting within the organisation's structure. Participant 8 spoke positively about working hard for the organisation but that despite this, he had not progressed. Participant 27 noted how "this role lets me express myself without having to compromise myself" but that she found it hard to work with other people. All three participants strongly considered themselves to misfit at work yet nevertheless noted positive factors and how these linked to their overall misfit perceptions.

In figures 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10, many of causal chains consist of a mixture of codes and several causal chains inter-link. Participant 1 (figure 6.8) has three causal chains at the

top of the map which consist of PO fit dimensions, the longest of which is 7 concepts long. Other causal chains link into these chains, particularly PG fit and PJ fit tails. This participant spoke about how the department in which he worked did not fit into the broader organisational structure and how pressures in his job, people not working together and interpersonal and cultural differences contributed to the department's lack of fit with the organisation. Participant 8 (figure 6.9) had four single-dimension, single concept chains as well as three single dimension chains which were three concepts long. However, participant 27's causal chains were more varied and there were no single dimension chains and none of the chains consisted of concepts that were more than 66% the same.

The misfit tree-maps for the participants who ranked themselves as 2, more misfit than fit, on the scale (figures 6.11 to 6.15) are also more complex than their fit maps. The only participant for whom this is not the case is participant 24, whose misfit map has fewer concepts and shorter chains. For the other maps in this group, the causal chains are longer, indicating that they spoke in some depth about the factors affecting their misfit perceptions. The causal chains comprise a range of different codes but there were 6 single-concept chains (7.9%) and 8 (10.5%) longer chains where 100% of the concepts were the same. Overall, there were 31 causal chains where more than two-thirds of the codes were the same (40.7%) and 13 chains where less than one-third of the chains were made up of the same codes (17.2%). The remaining 32 chains consisted of codes that were more than 33% the same but less than 66% the same (i.e. the $\geq$ 50% and <50% categories). As an example of such a chain where there is a range of dimensions, in figure 6.12, the positive root concept (7, PG) refers to the first few months of employment at the organisation when this participant's colleagues were friendly. However the supervisor left (10, PS), leading to "negative vibes" (11, PG), noticeable "cracks in the infrastructure" appeared (14, PO) and colleagues started to leave (15, PG). These events led the participant to think negatively of the managers (44, PS) and the organisation (48 and 49, PO) leading him to conclude that it was "not a nice environment to be in" (50, PO).

The concepts on these participants' maps are predominantly negative and neutral. Each map has at least one positive concept although no map has more than three positive nodes. The positive elements were PE factors apart from participant 26 who notes positive links to her community, in particular, being close to elderly family members.

For this group of participants, who consider themselves to misfit to at least some degree at work, proposition 1, that each causal chain will comprise concepts of one dimension was only the case for 23.8% of the causal chains. Causal chains seldom contained only one fit dimension and where this was the case, the chain tended to be very short. However, in the percentages section of table 6.1 it can be seen that 18.4% of the chains were made up of concepts which were 75% similar, 3.9% of the chains contained concepts which were 66% or more the same and for 27.6% of the chains at least half of the concepts were the same. Taken together this shows that there was often one dimension which occurred more frequently than others in the causal chains but that more often than not, other dimensions appeared as well. These participants reported that the various forms of fit affected and influenced each other.

Proposition 2 posits that positively phrased concepts will connect to the fit head whereas negative concepts will connect to misfit and neutral concepts will be evenly distributed. Neutral concepts were indeed distributed evenly, appearing on chains leading to both the fit and misfit heads. However, there were negative concepts on the fit maps and positive concepts on the misfit maps. Participants tended to 'balance' their points: when speaking about the factors causing them to misfit at work, they noted that although there were positive features of work, these were outweighed by negative factors.

6.4.3 The In-Betweens' Causal Maps – Chains leading to Fit

There were 14 participants who considered themselves to fit more than misfit at work (participants 3, 6, 7, 10, 13, 15, 18, 19, 20, 31, 32, 34, 35, 38). Their complete coded maps are shown in appendix 11 and the fit chains from each map are shown below.

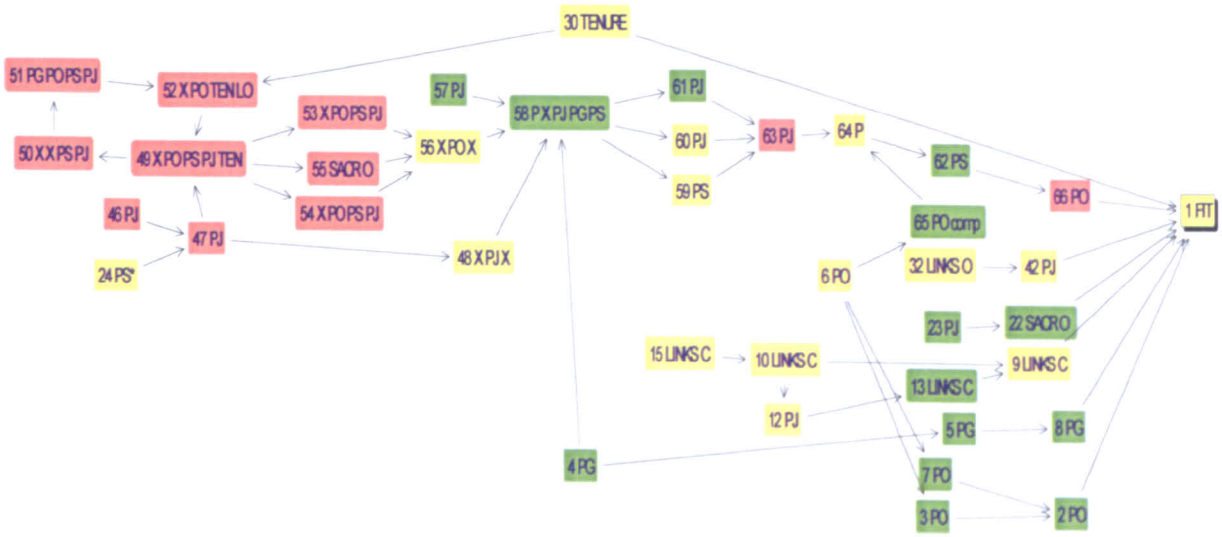


Figure 6.16 Participant 3 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

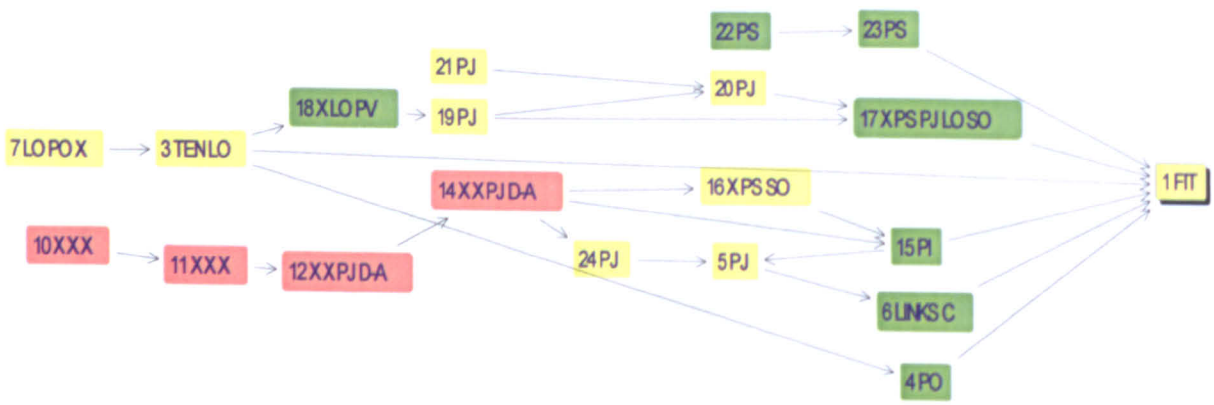


Figure 6.17 Participant 6 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

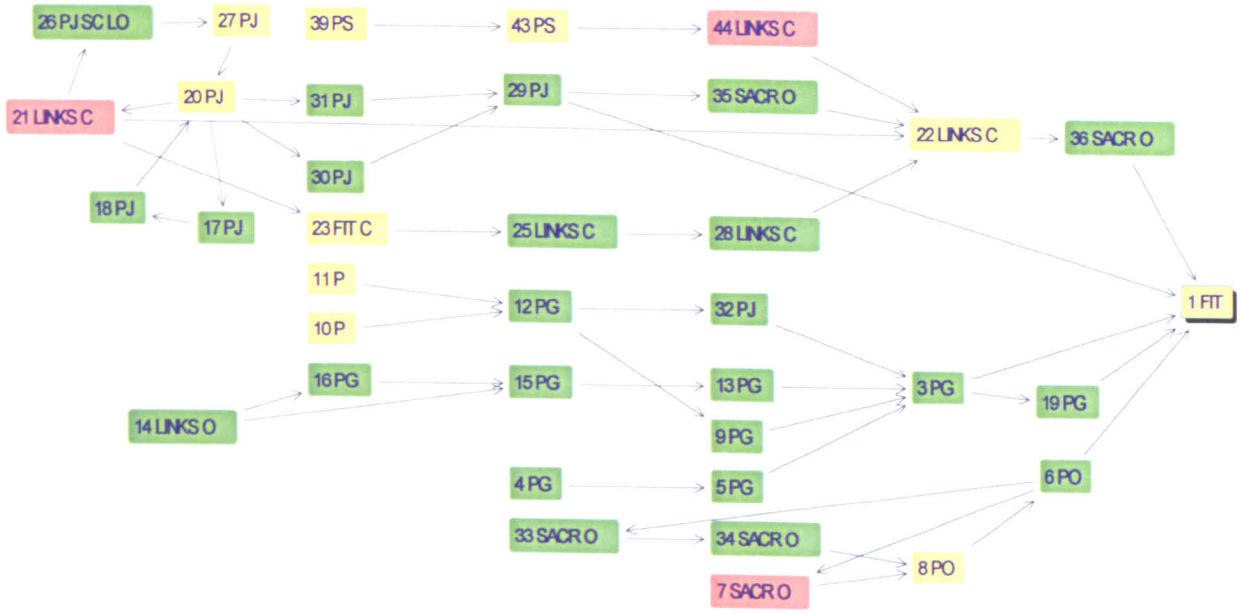


Figure 6.18 Participant 7 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

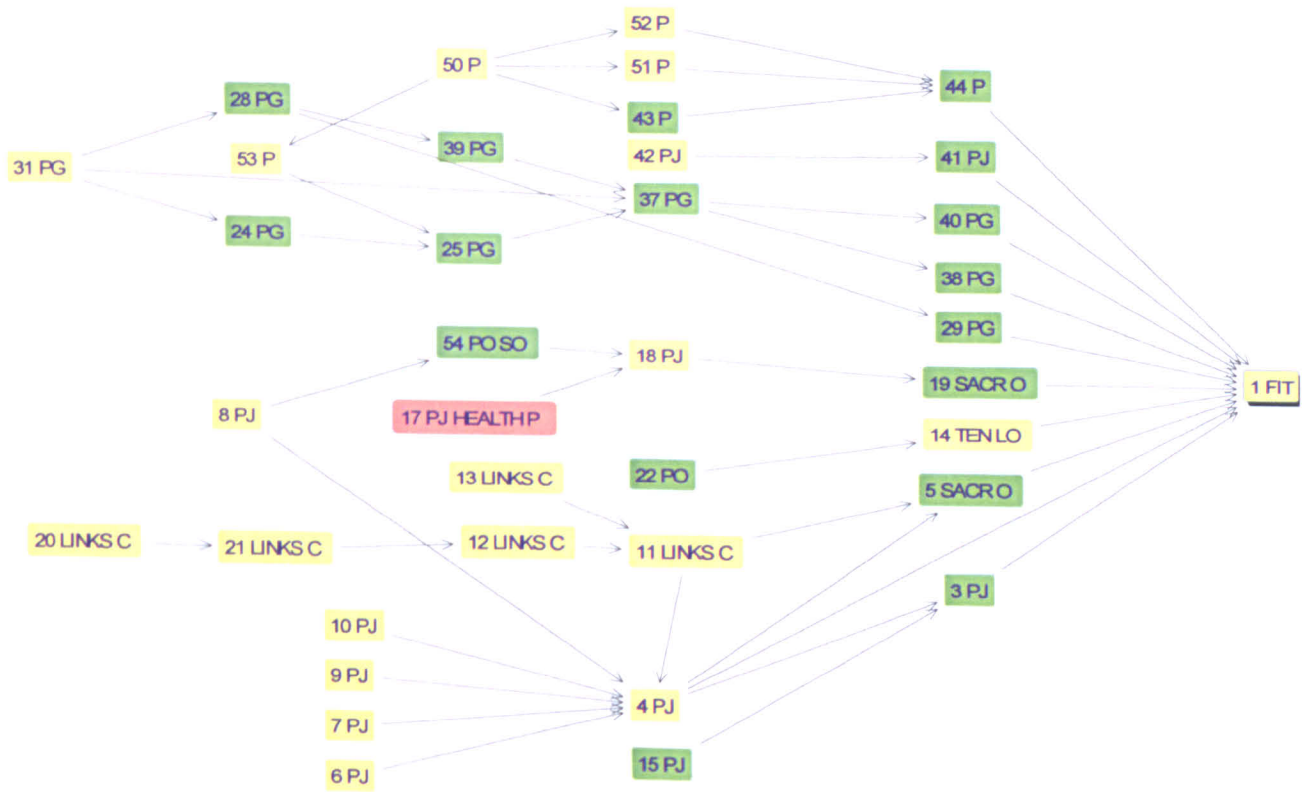


Figure 6.19 Participant 10 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

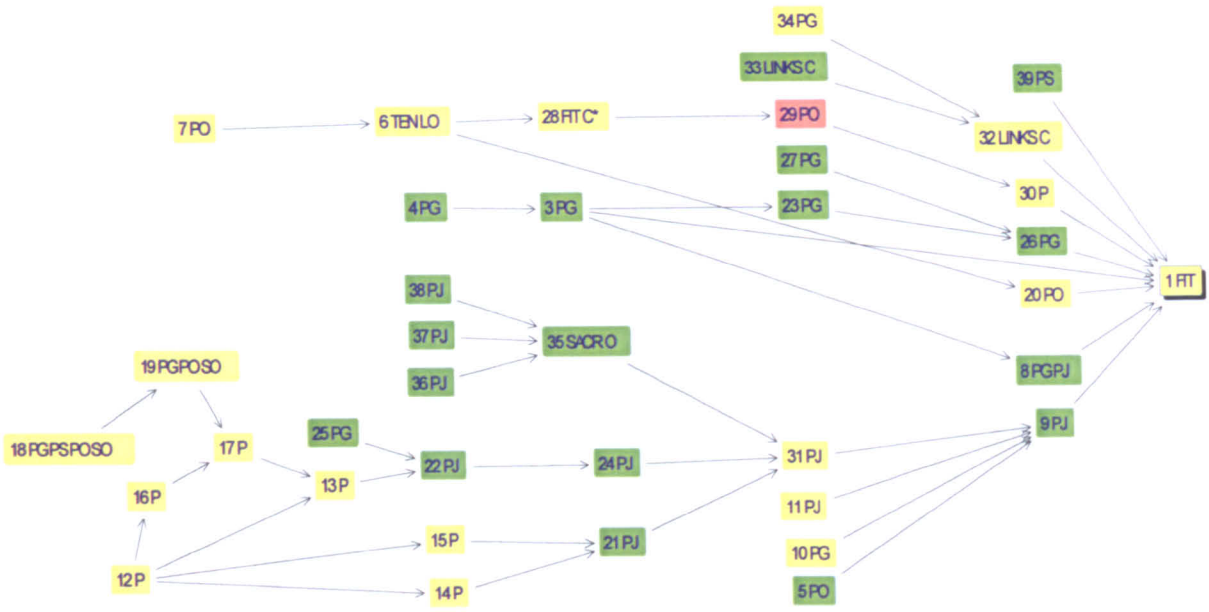


Figure 6.20 Participant 13 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

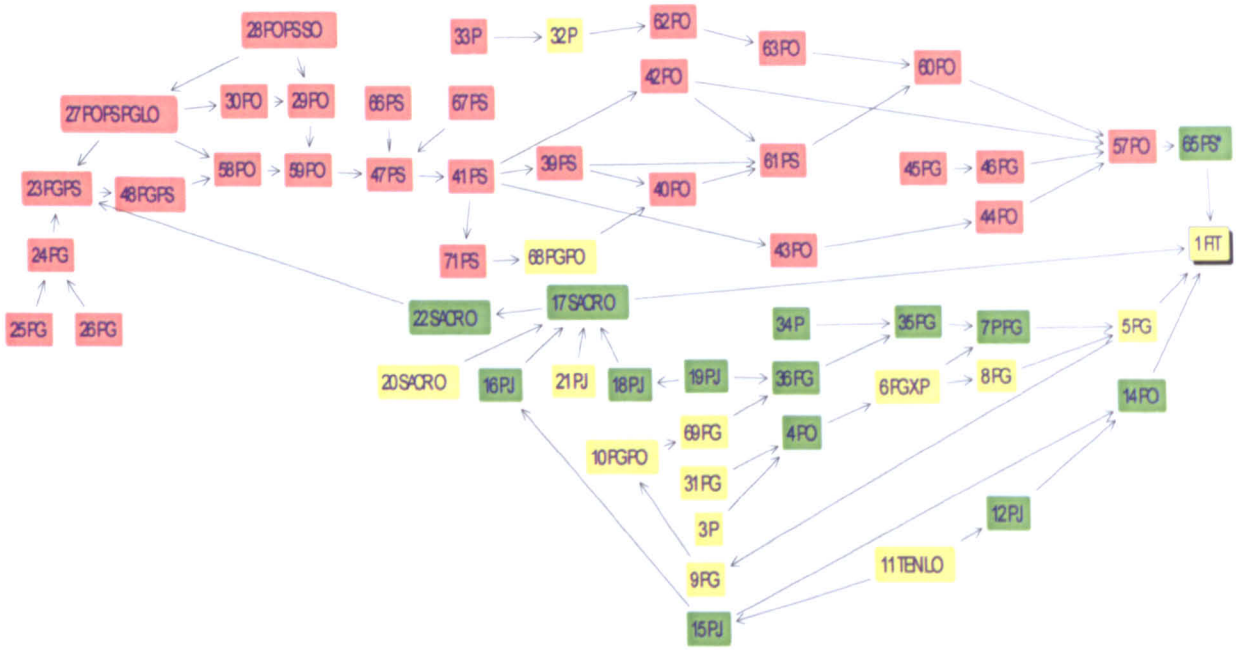


Figure 6.21 Participant 15 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

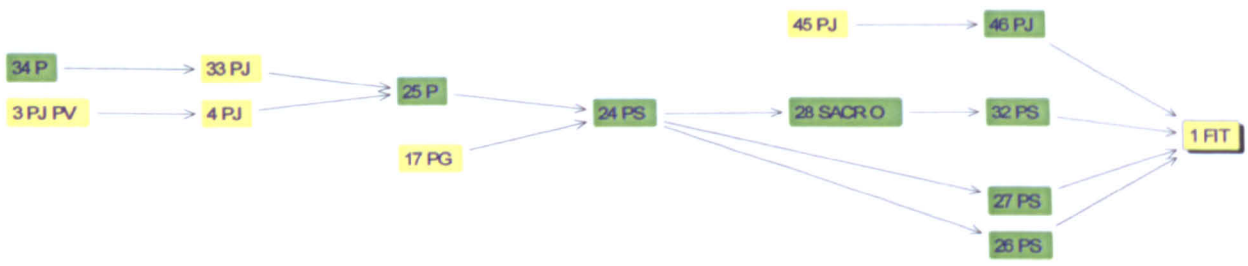


Figure 6.22 Participant 18 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

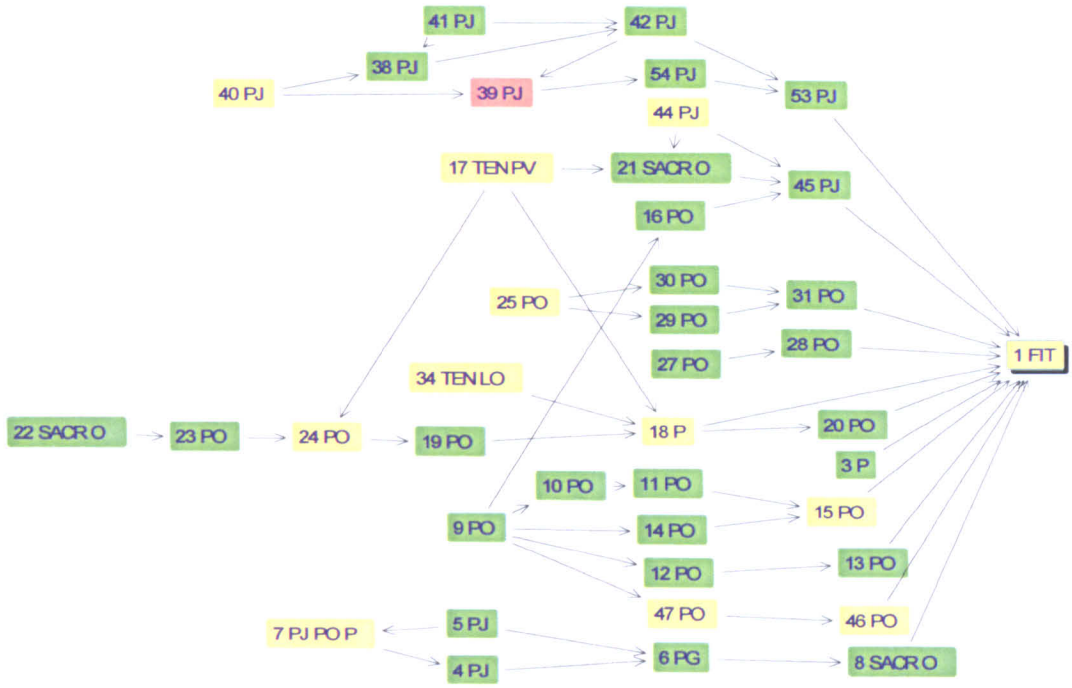


Figure 6.23 Participant 19 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

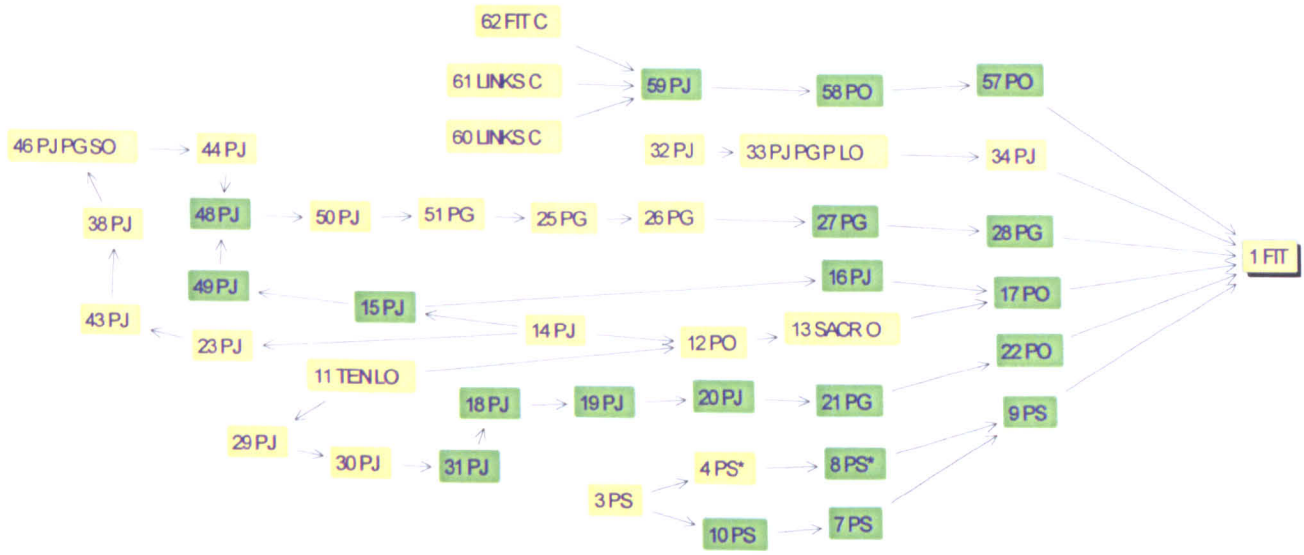


Figure 6.24 Participant 20 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

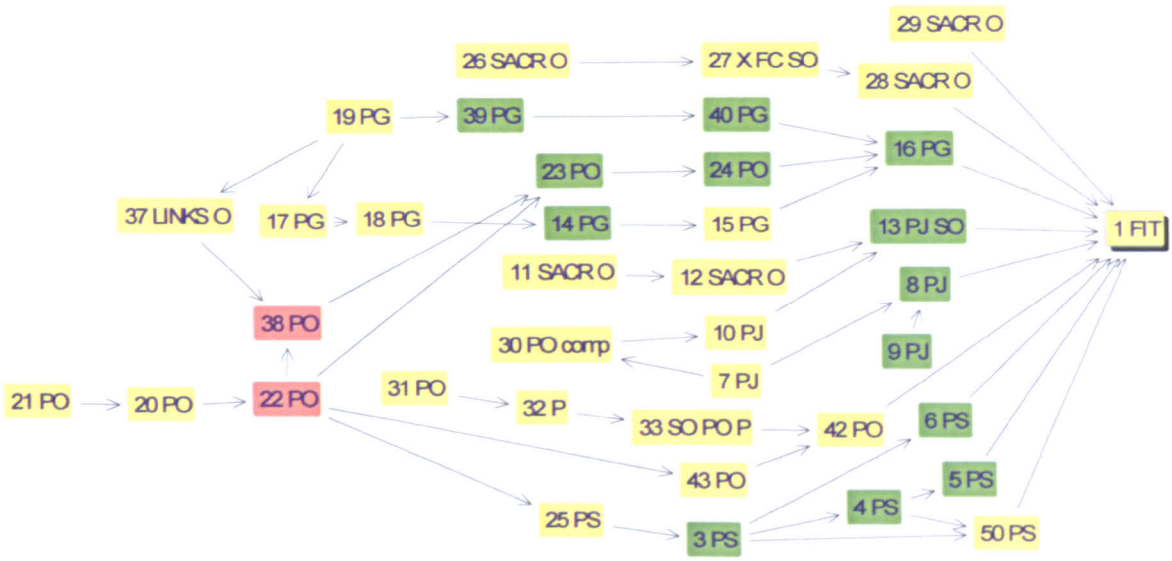


Figure 6.25 Participant 31 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

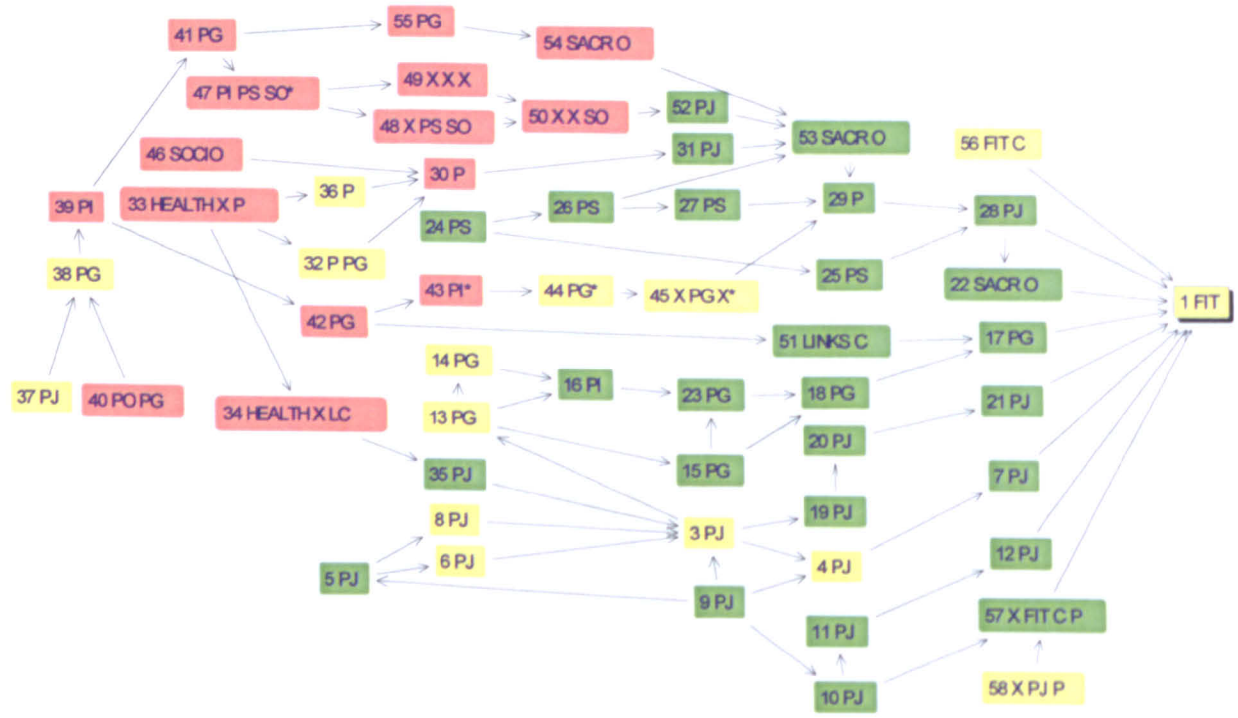


Figure 6.26 Participant 32 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

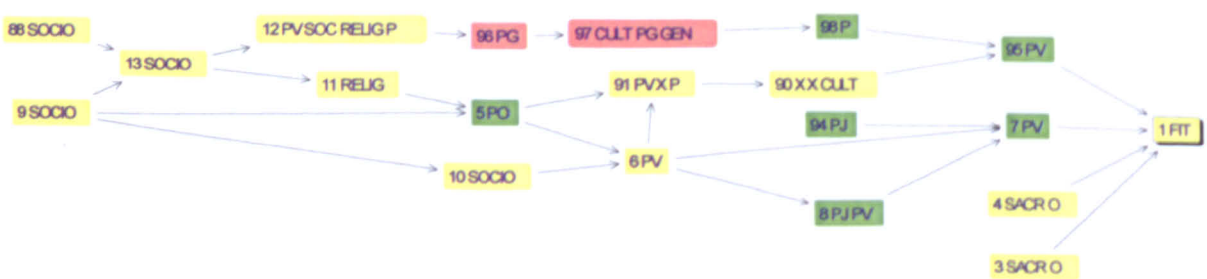


Figure 6.27 Participant 34 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

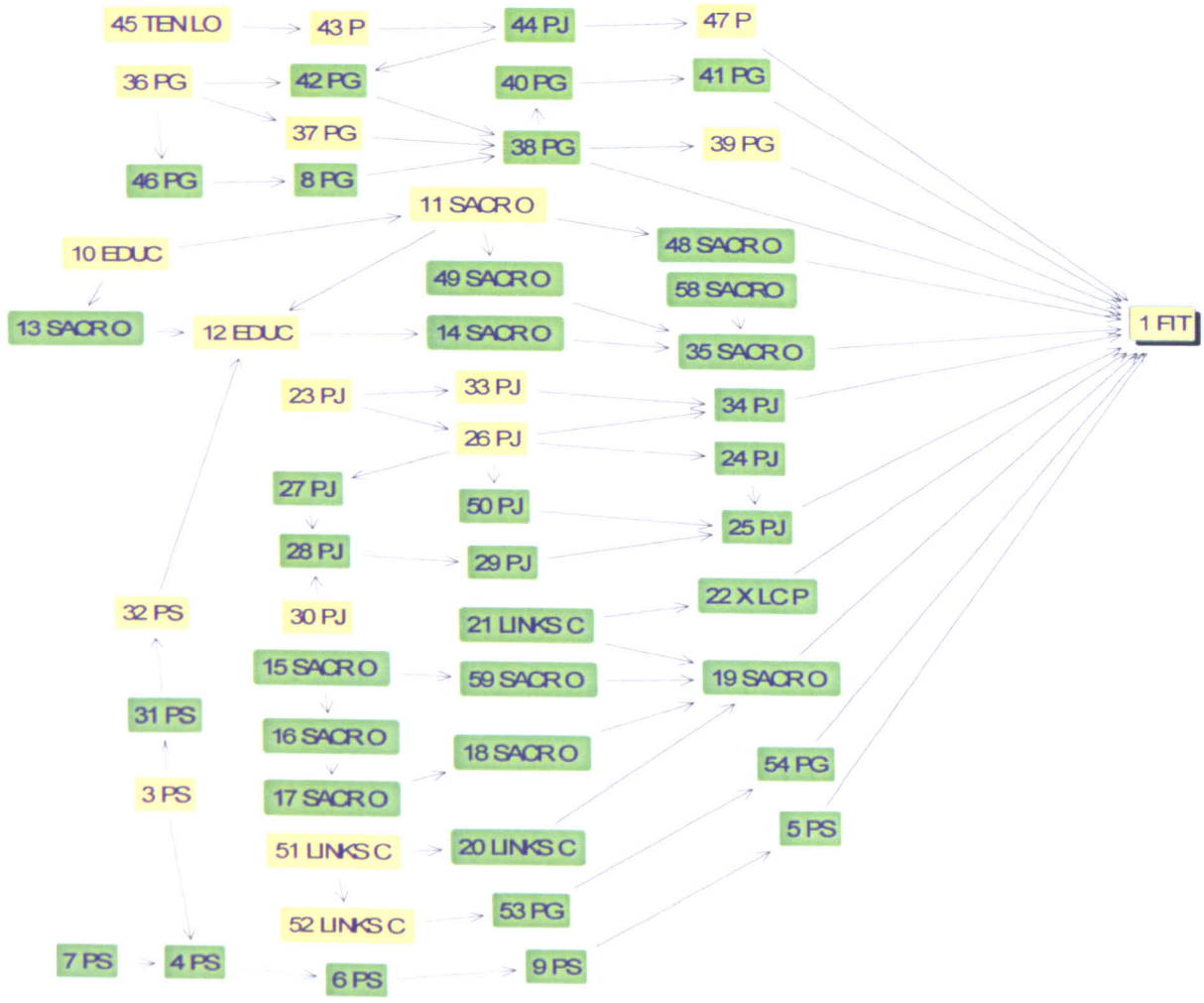


Figure 6.28 Participant 35 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

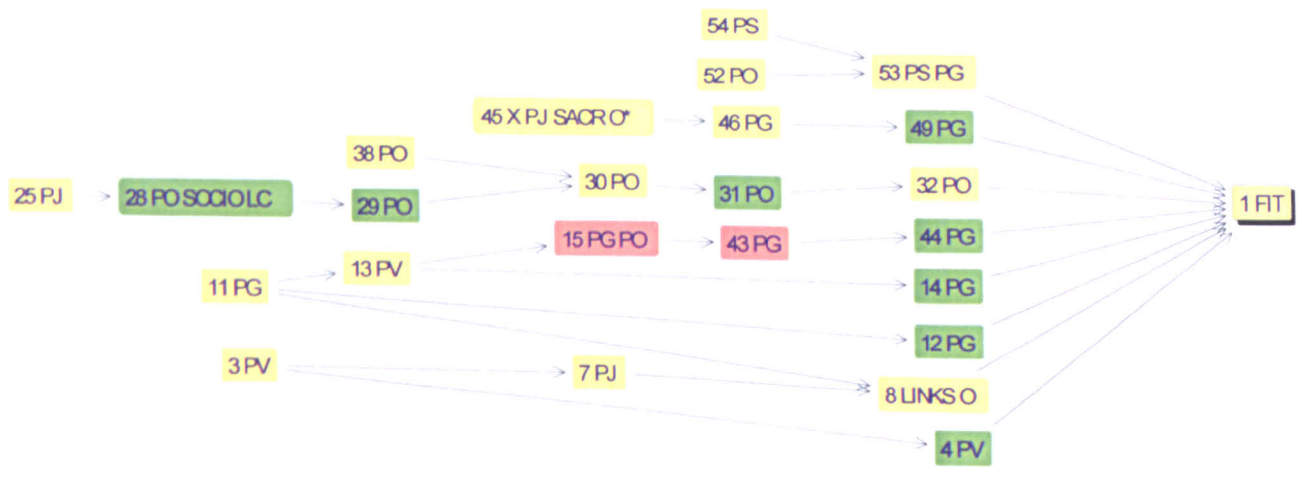


Figure 6.29 Participant 38 (neither fit nor misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

The 14 tree maps shown above are for participants who said that they fitted more than misfitted at work apart from participant 38 (figure 6.29) who said that she neither

fitted nor misfitted. This individual was the only person to place herself on the middle of the scale.

The fit tree maps for this group are varied: most of the maps are complex with many inter-linked causal chains and are more complex than the fit tree maps for the group of participants who tended towards misfit. However, figures 6.17, 6.22, 6.27 and 6.29 are relatively simple maps, similar in shape and size to the misfits' tree maps shown in section 6.3.1. Figure 6.17 has one causal chain which only features one fit dimension (PS fit) but the rest of the chains are made up of a range of dimensions, including uncoded items (concepts 10 and 11) and several concepts where the coders did not agree on the coding. For this participant the negative, uncoded items related to a serious illness and the subsequent support that he had received from a senior manager which led him to perceive that he fitted in.

Figure 6.22 similarly only has one chain where only one code is used and this is again a short chain of PS coded concepts. For this participant, his manager's confidence and faith in him also made him perceive that he fitted in. The other two simple tree maps, figures 6.27 and 6.29 similarly have causal chains consisting of a variety of dimensions. There are two one-concept chains on figure 6.27 (3, Sacr O and 4, Sacr O) where no other dimensions affect these chains. This tree-map has a wide variety of codes, including demographic ones. For this individual, his cultural background, upbringing and religion were important determinants of his vocation and it was his fit with his vocation, rather than the organisation, and his ambition to carry on in the field that made him perceive that he fitted. In figure 6.29, there is one single-dimension chain (38, PO – 30, PO – 31, PO, 32, PO) but another chain (starting with the tail concept 25, PJ) feeds into this chain.

The remaining tree maps for this group of participants (figures 6.16, 6.18, 6.19, 6.20, 6.23 and 6.24) are more complex having both more 'depth' in terms of the number of links leading to the fit head and 'breadth' in having longer causal chains. Despite being more complex, these maps have a higher number of single-concept chains than the

relatively simple maps in this group. Figure 6.19 for example has a chain consisting of P concepts as well as PG and PJ chains. Figures 6.21, 6.23, 6.26, 6.27 and 6.28 similarly have single dimension chains. In total, there were 25 causal chains which were longer than one concept and where all of the concepts were similarly coded although 15 of these were only 2 concepts long. There were additionally 21 chains where 75% or more of the concepts had the same codes and 10 chains where 66% or more of the codes were the same. However, there were also 21 chains where fewer than 50% of the concepts were the same and 11 chains where none of the concepts had the same code (but these again, tended to be short chains).

When looking at the relative numbers of positive, negative and neutral concepts, this map (figure 6.21) also stands out for its high number of negative concepts which are grouped together at the top of the tree. There are 29 negative concepts many of which relate to poor management practice, management cliques and bullying. The top causal chain relates to the individual's lack of confidence making it difficult for her to assert herself and stand up for others who are subordinate to the management cliques. These negative chains end on a positive: a new manager coming in who may change things for the better (65, PS). Despite the high number of negative concepts, this person perceives that she fits more than misfits, partly because she is positive, helps other colleagues and because "I adapt" (5, PG).

The other maps have fewer negative concepts: figures 6.22, 6.24 and 6.28 have none but in the other tree maps, the negative concepts are part of chains containing positive and neutral concepts. There being negative elements or factors at work does therefore not automatically indicate that people perceive that they misfit.

6.4.4 The In-betweens' Causal Maps – Chains Leading to Misfit

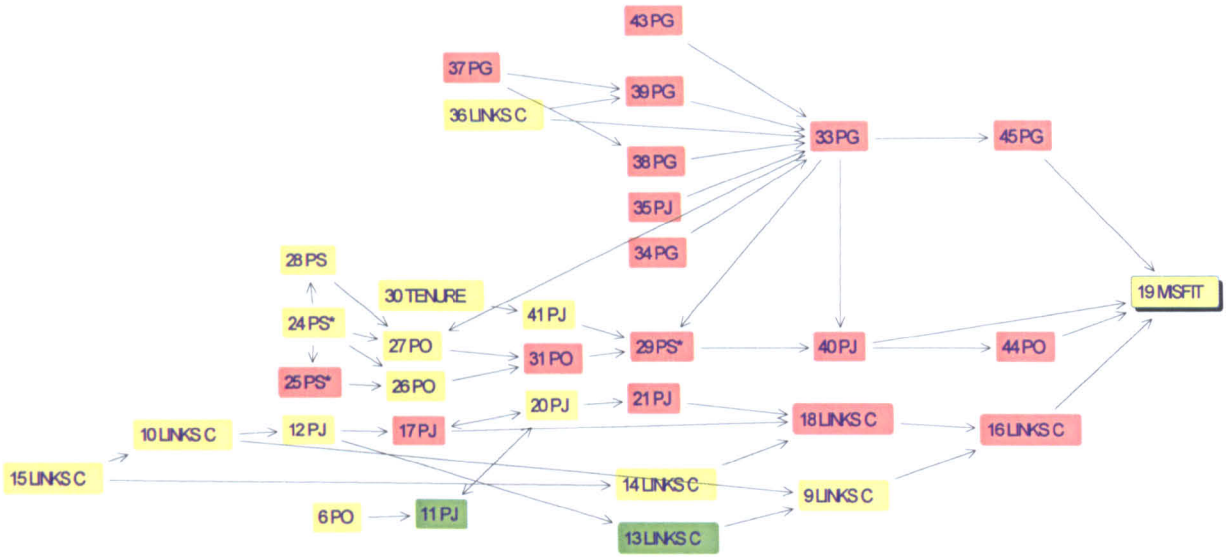


Figure 6.30 Participant 3 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

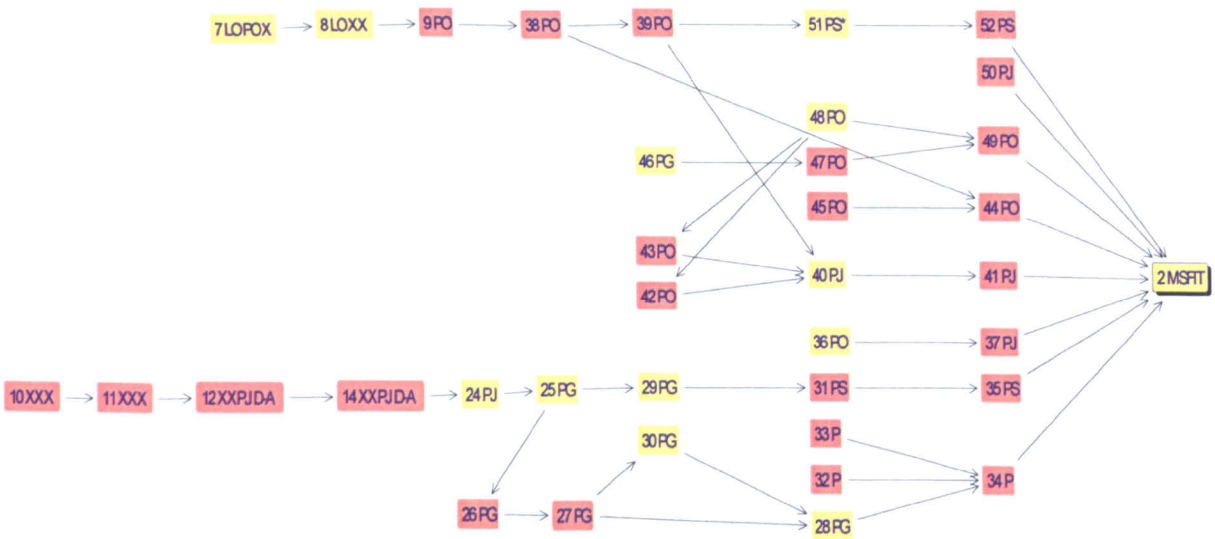


Figure 6.31 Participant 6 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

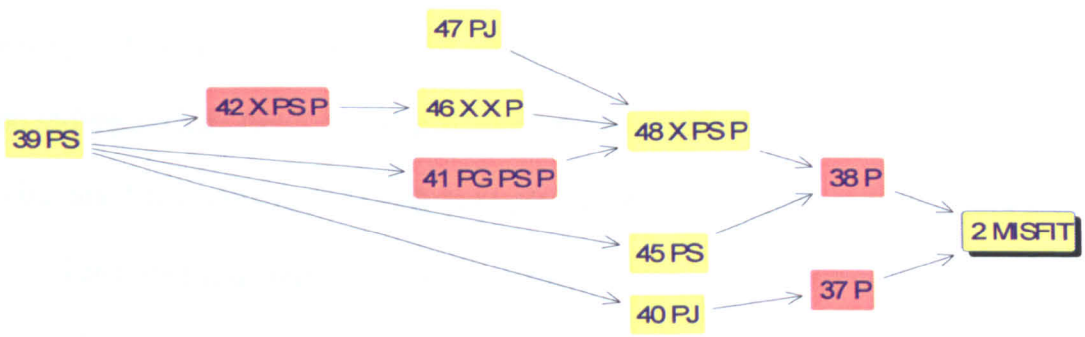


Figure 6.32 Participant 7 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

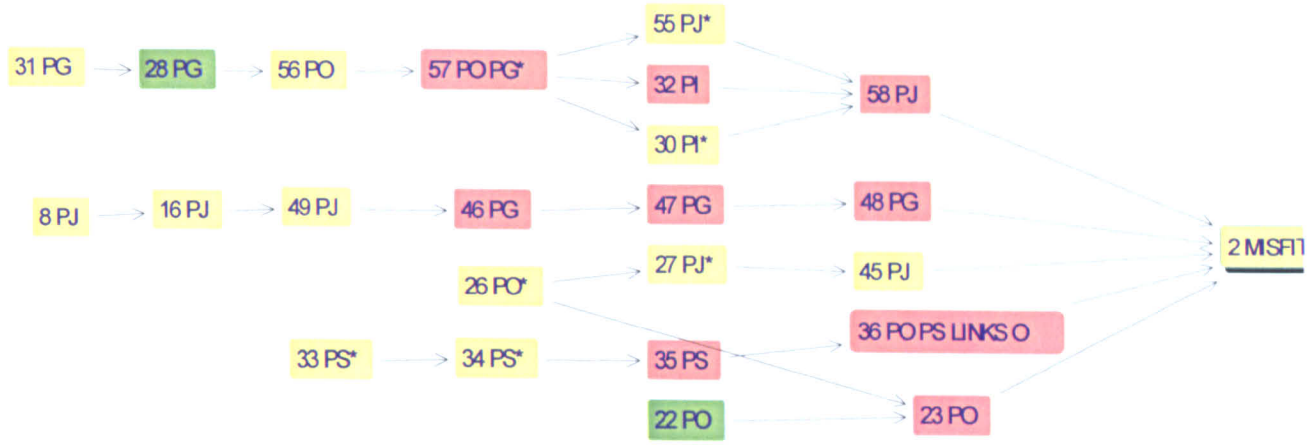


Figure 6.33 Participant 10 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

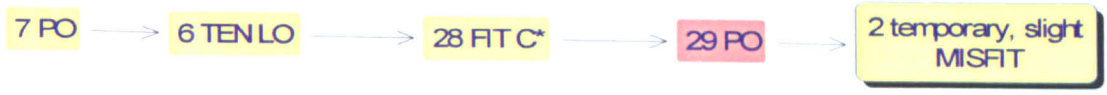


Figure 6.34 Participant 13 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

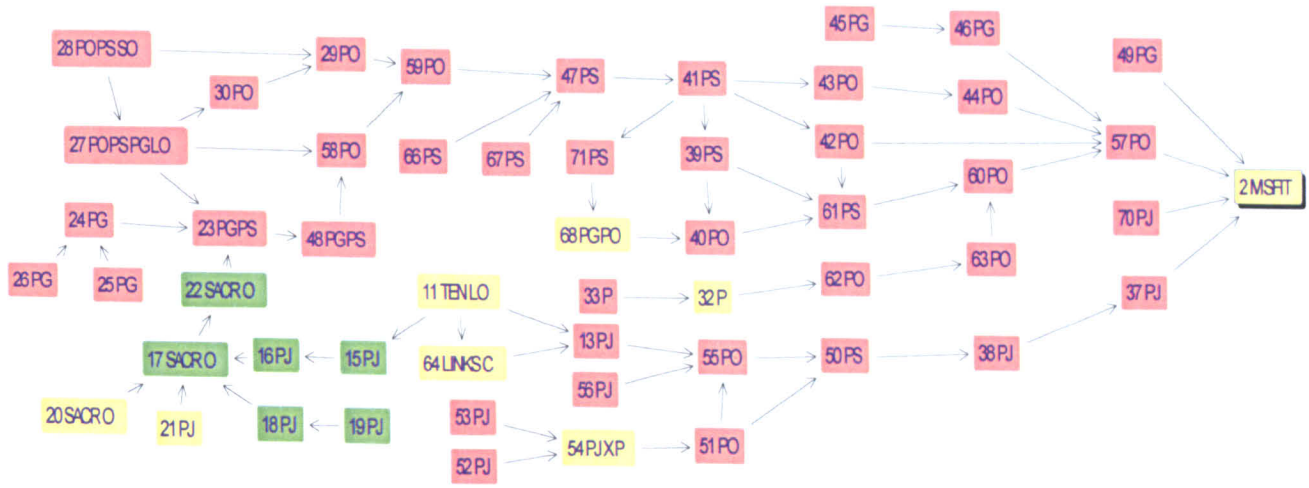


Figure 6.35 Participant 15 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

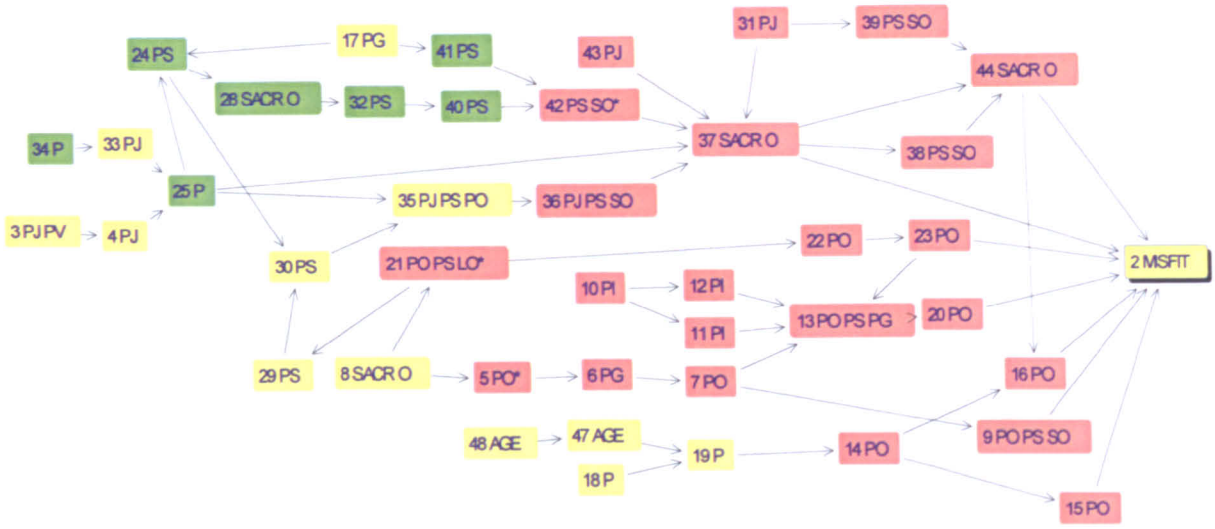


Figure 6.36 Participant 18 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

Figure 6.37 Participant 19 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

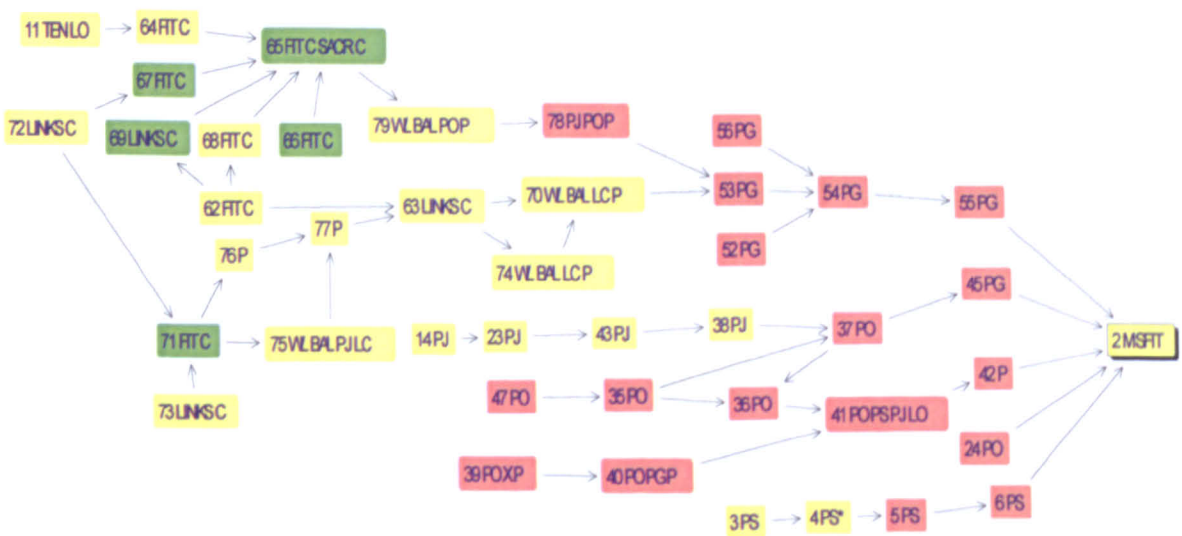


Figure 6.38 Participant 20 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

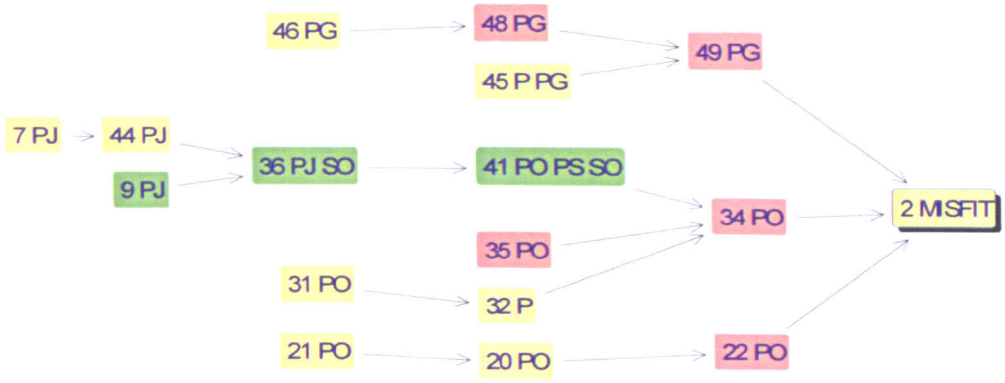


Figure 6.39 Participant 31 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

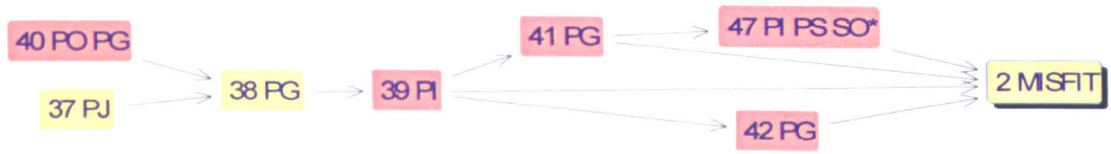


Figure 6.40 Participant 32 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

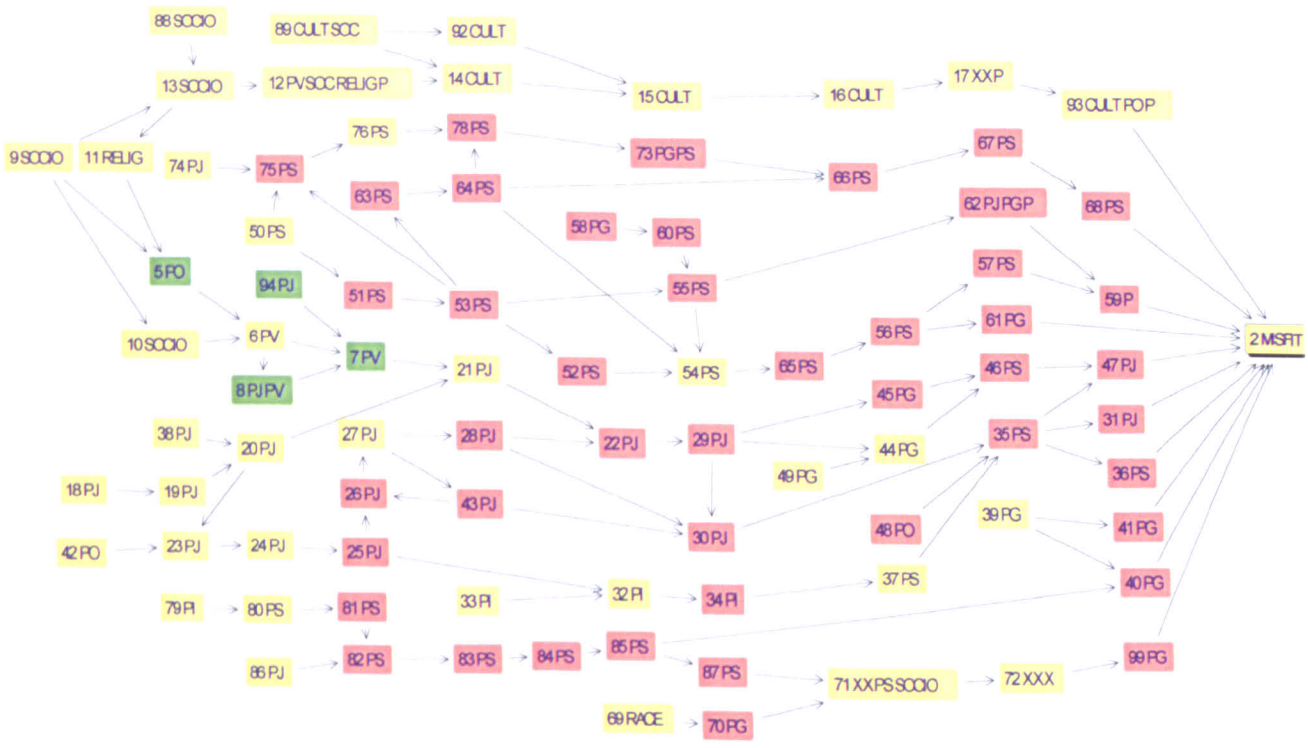


Figure 6.41 Participant 34 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

Figure 6.42 Participant 35 (more fit than misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

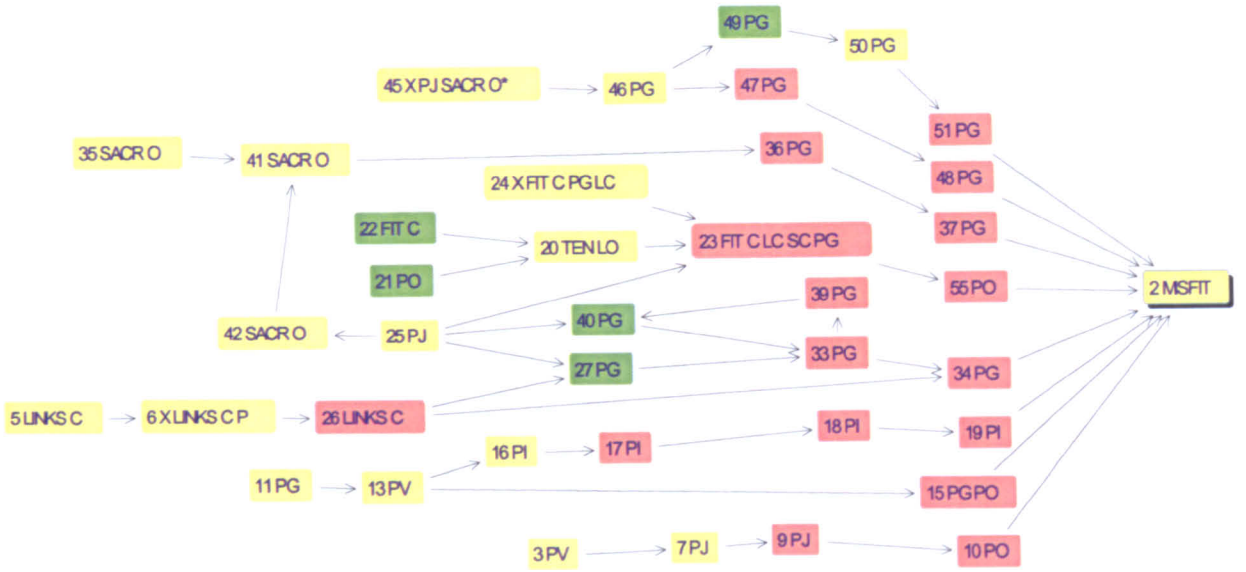


Figure 6.43 Participant 38 (neither fit nor misfit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

The misfit tree maps for the participants who perceive that they more fit than misfit (shown in figures 6.30 to 6.43 above) are again very varied, ranging from one chain to very complex maps. Figures 6.34 and 6.42 show one-chain maps for individuals who had very few factors causing misfit at work. These are however not single dimension chains: figure 6.34 has PO at its root but also includes tenure/links-organisation and fit community. In figure 6.42, age impacts on this participant's fit perceptions. She noted how her job "people don't want to talk to a young person" and that "sometimes you get the attitude: 'what do you know? You're the same age as my daughter,' which made her "struggle a bit". These two participants predominantly spoke about their fit perceptions and their misfit maps were consequently very small.

There were other tree maps for misfit which were simple in comparison to the participants' fit maps. For example, figure 6.32 shows that participant 7 cited few factors causing him to misfit. The causal chains feature a mix of dimensions which culminate in 37, P and 38, P; his "self doubt" and "lack of confidence". Figures 6.33, 6.37, 6.39 and 6.40 are also simple in comparison to these participants' fit tree maps. Of these, figure 6.33 features one causal chain which consists only of PO fit and figure 6.39 has three

single-dimension chains: one of PG fit and two of PO fit. However in general, the chains consist of mixed concepts.

Of the 14 misfit tree-maps presented above, 7 were more simple than the fit tree-maps for the same participants. The other 7 maps were relatively complex. Some participants such as participants 6 (figure 6.31), 18 (figure 6.36) and 34 (figure 6.41) had simple fit maps and more complex misfit maps despite saying that they fitted more than misfitting. As noted in section 6.3.3, for participant 34 (figure 6.41) the many factors causing him to misfit were outweighed by his strong sense of vocation. Out of the 17 causal chains in this participant's map, there was one single-dimension chain of three PG fit concepts. Both participant 6 (figure 6.31)and 18 (figure 6.36) worked in manufacturing and cited changes in management, adverse working conditions and being unfairly treated as contributing to their misfit perceptions. The chains on these participants' maps are long and, like participant 34's misfit map, tend to be made up of a mix of dimensions although participant 6 (figure 6.31) has four short single-dimension chains, the longest of which are two concepts long.

Figures 6.30, 6.35 and 6.38 show misfit tree maps which are similar in complexity to the participants' fit tree maps. The maps are 'wide' in that the causal chains are long with many having over 8 concepts in each chain. There are two chains on figure 6.35 which are only 1 concept long and as such are one-concept chains (49, PG and 70, PJ). This map shows the factors leading to participant 15's misfit perceptions and many of the concepts are the same as for her fit tree map as this participant had by far the highest number of 'double' concepts (40) on her causal map. Figure 6.38 also has one single dimension PO chain as well as two three-concept long PG chains and a four concept long PS chain whereas figure 6.30 has no single-dimension chains. Overall, these maps show a range of dimensions being incorporated into each chain with PE fit dimensions but also factors relating to individuals' communities impacting on each other.

The final map in this group is for participant 38 (figure 6.43) who was the only individual to consider herself to neither fit nor misfit. The misfit tree map is similar in its complexity to her fit tree map and has chains of mixed dimensions.

Figures 6.30 to 6.43 show that positive, negative and neutral concepts are all included in the causal chains leading to misfit. Negative concepts dominate however and there are low numbers of positive concepts with the highest number featuring in figure 6.36 which has 7 positive concepts. There are no causal chains in this group of maps made up entirely of negative concepts apart from participant 35's (figure 6.42) simple, one-chain tree map.

Overall therefore, proposition 1, that chains will comprise of single dimensions is not often true for this group of participants. On table 6.1, the row 'inbetweens' misfit chains' shows that out of the 105 causal chains on these participants' maps, 4 (3.8%) were single concept chains and 11(10.5%) were single dimension chains. However, a further 9 (8.6%) chains had concepts which were 75% the same and 11 (10.5%) chains were two-thirds the same. Despite there being many chains where the concepts were similarly coded or where the majority of items were the same, there were nevertheless a large number of chains with more variety in the concepts that were included. The maps were often very varied yet consistently show that job, organisational, group, supervisor, individual and vocational factors influence each other and that individuals also on occasion cite demographic and community factors as affecting these.

Proposition 2, that positively phrased concepts will connect to the fit head and negatively phrased concepts to the misfit head with neutral concepts being evenly dispersed is also not wholly borne out by these maps. Larger proportions of the fit maps are made up of positive concepts and on the misfit maps the negative concepts outweigh the positives. However, the individuals in this group did not exclusively cite positive factors in relation to their fit and negative factors in relation to misfit.

The next sections focus on the fit and misfit maps for those participants who felt that they fitted well at work: those individuals who rated themselves a 5 on the misfit (1) to fit (5) scale.

6.4.5 The Perfect Fits' Causal Maps – Chains Leading to Fit

There were 16 participants (4, 5, 9, 11, 14, 16, 17, 21, 22, 23, 25, 28, 30, 33, 36 and 37) who considered themselves to fit very well at work. The tree maps showing the causal chains leading to fit for each of these participants is shown in figures 6.44 to 6.59.

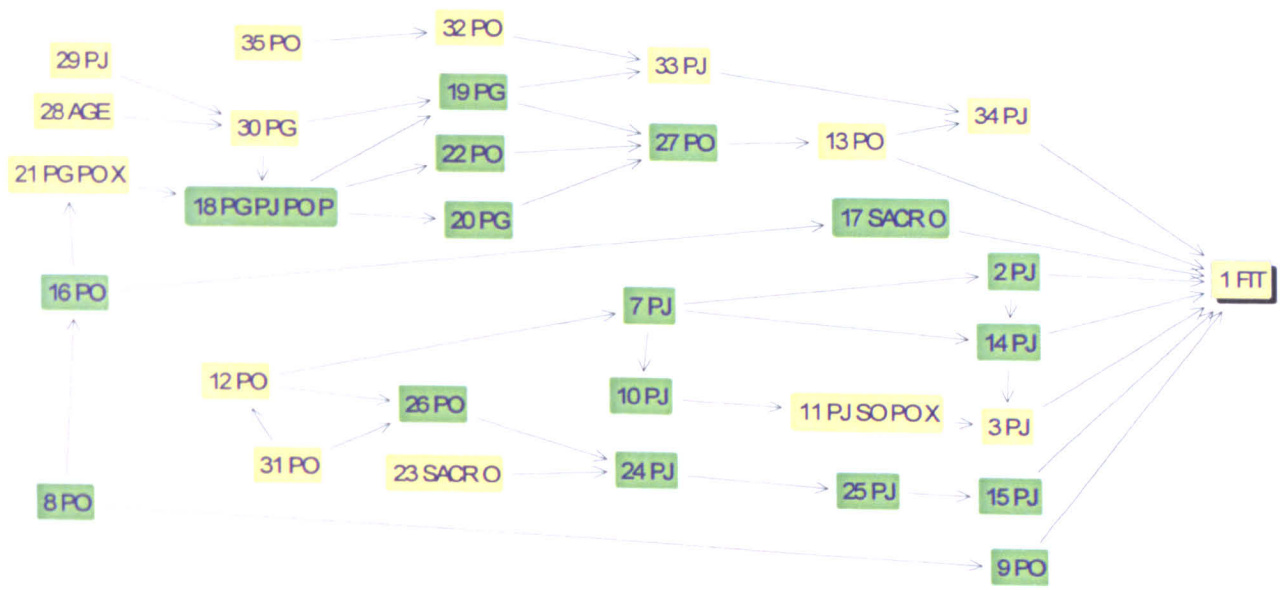


Figure 6.44 Participant 4 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

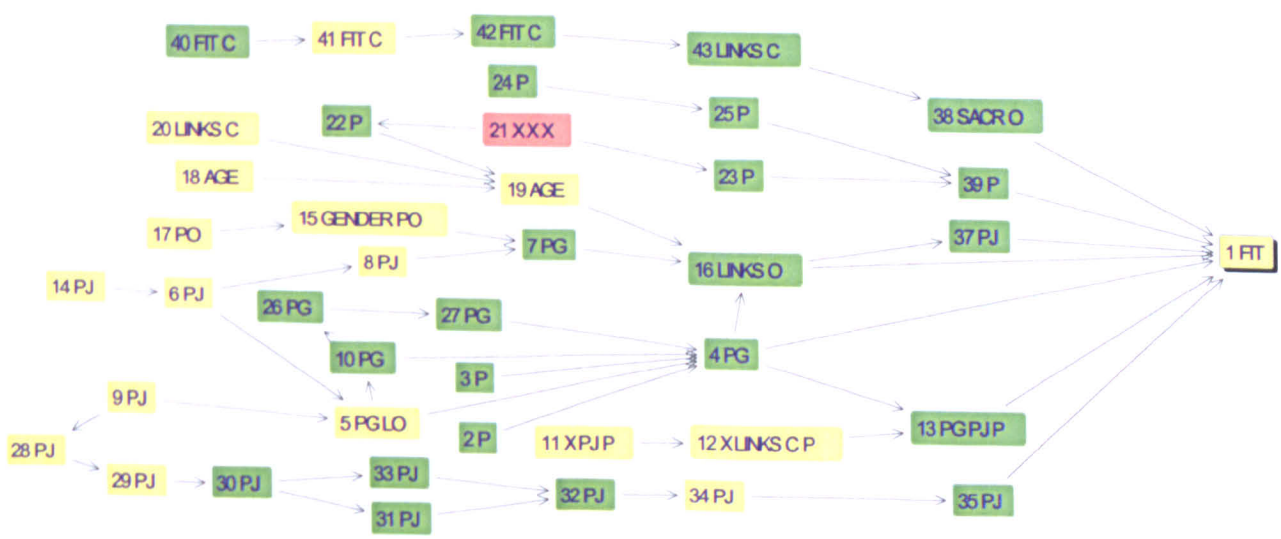


Figure 6.45 Participant 5 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

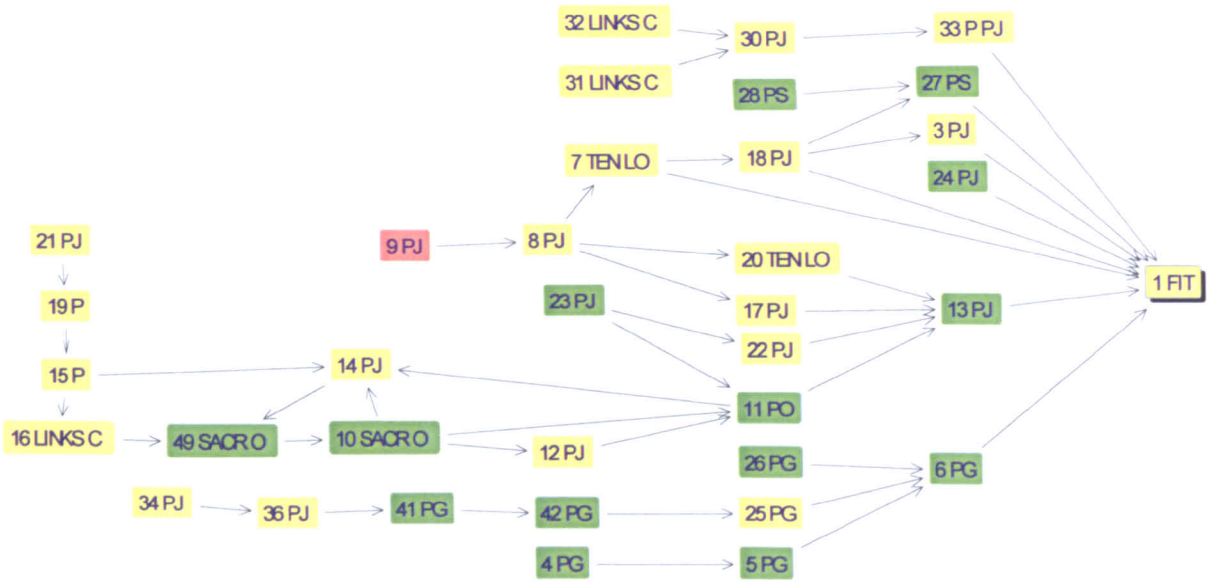


Figure 6.46 Participant 9 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

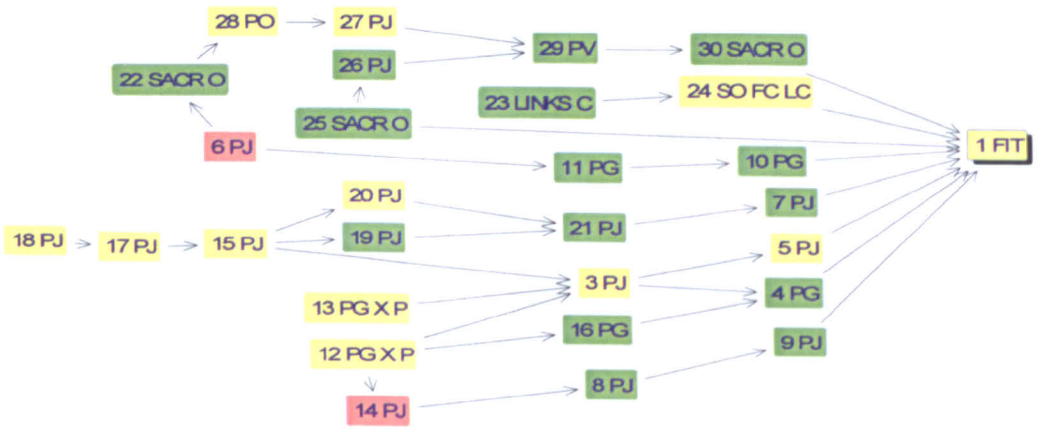


Figure 6.47 Participant 11 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

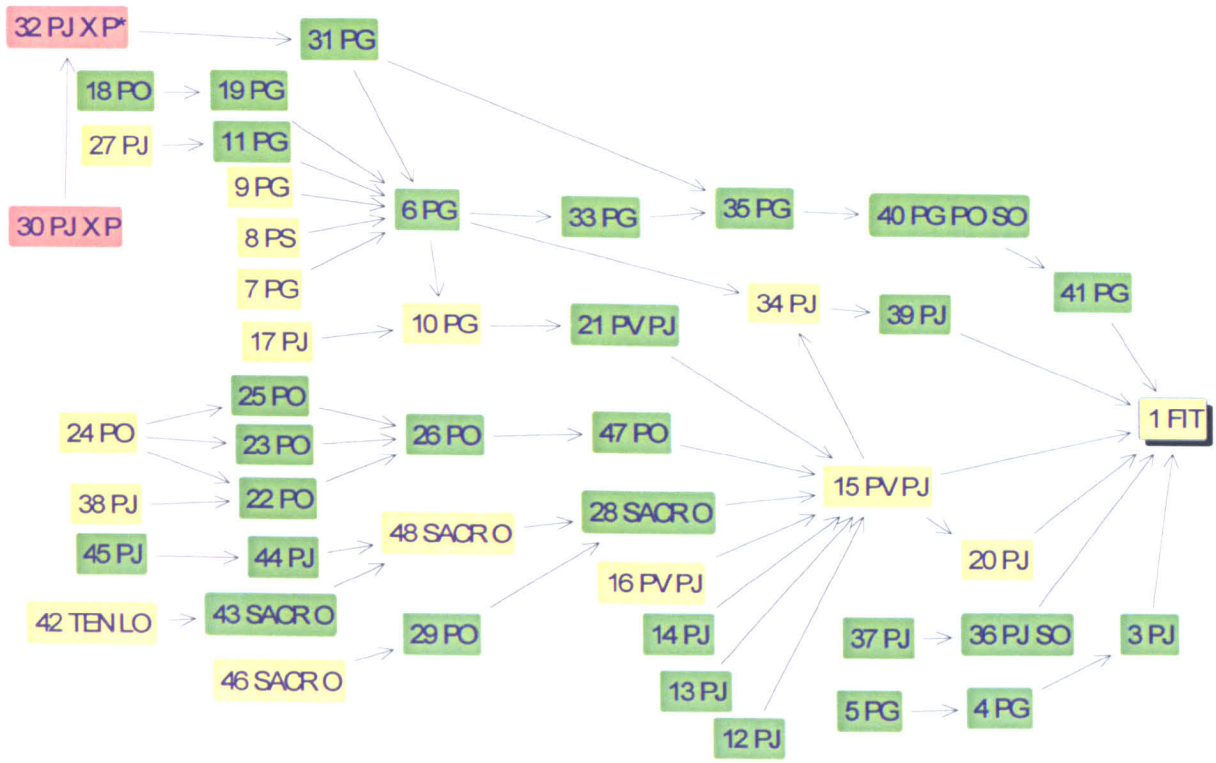


Figure 6.48 Participant 14 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

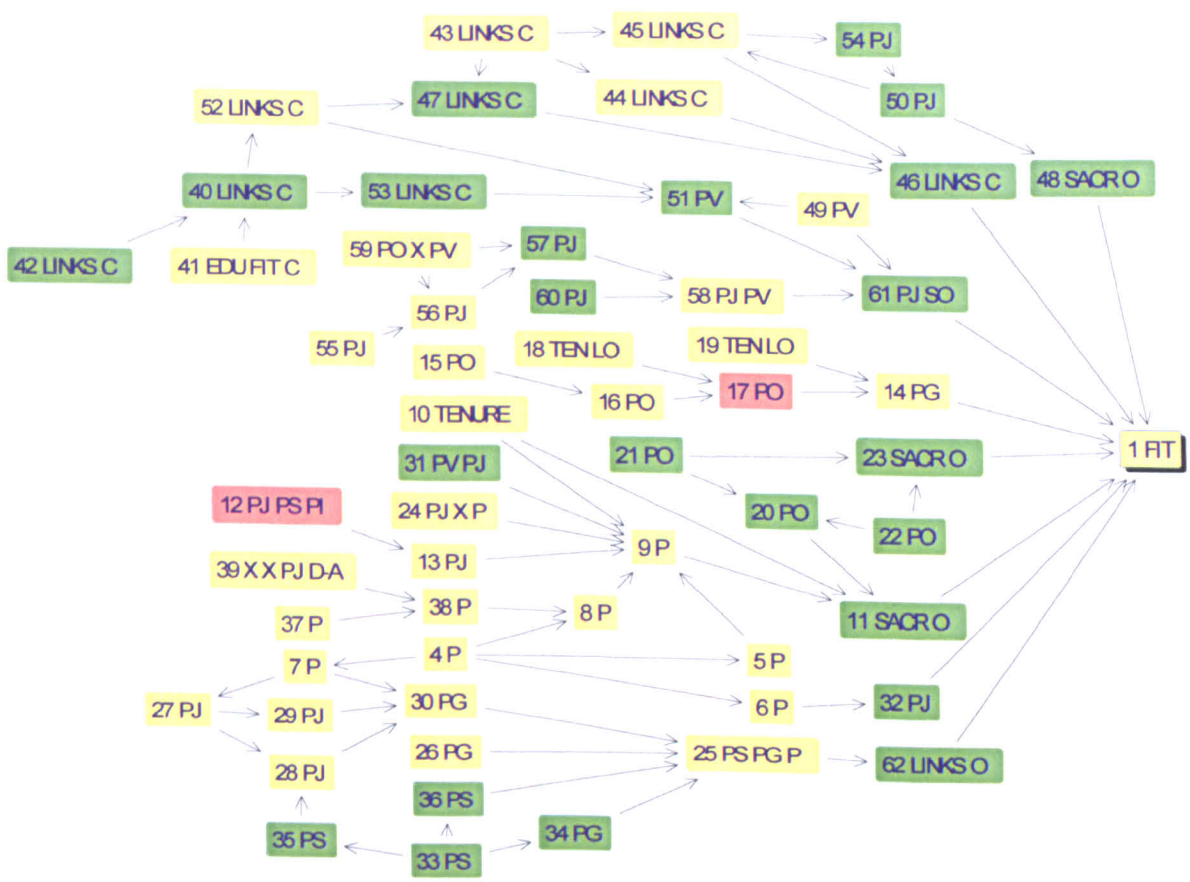


Figure 6.49 Participant 16 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

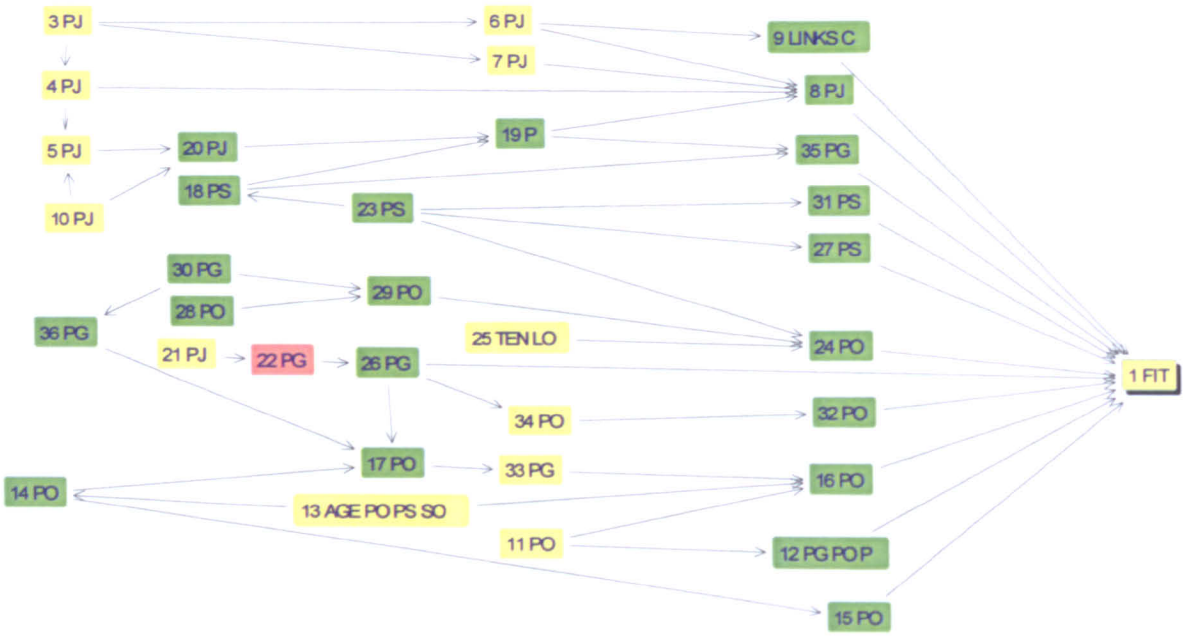


Figure 6.50 Participant 17 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

Figure 6.51 Participant 21 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

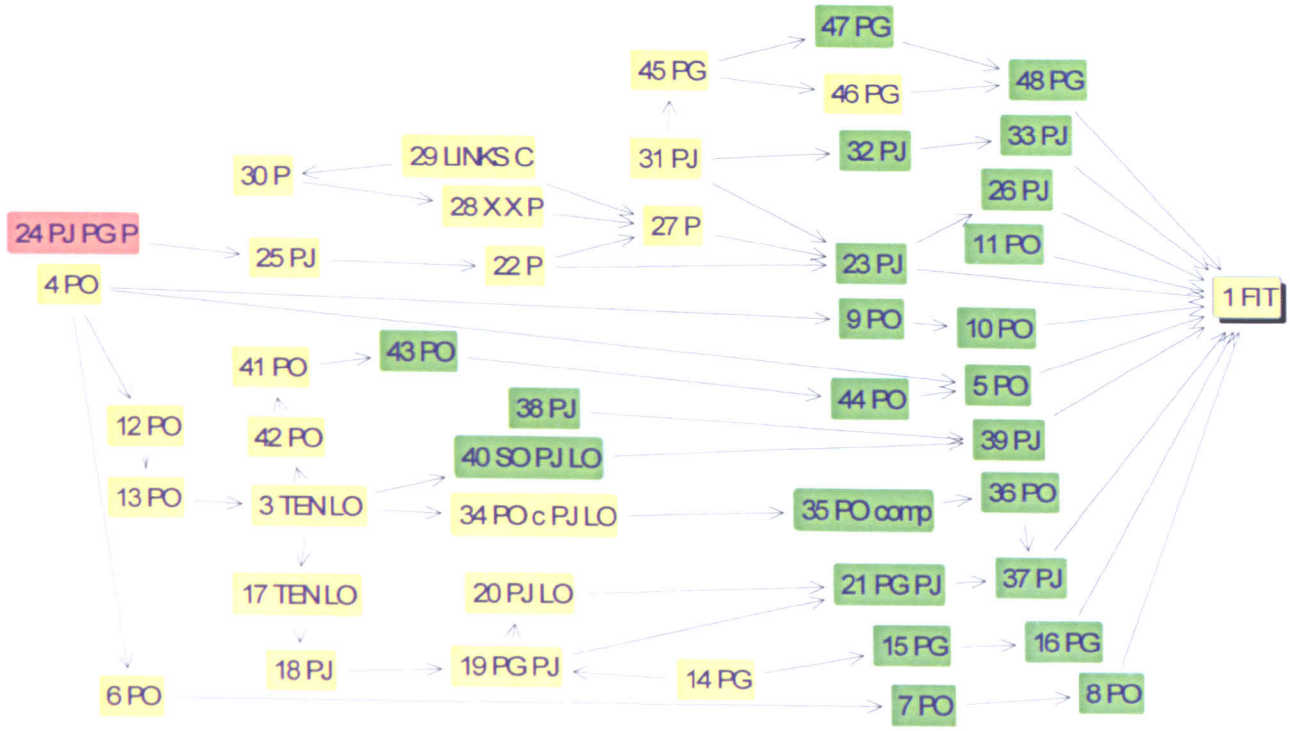


Figure 6.52 Participant 22 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

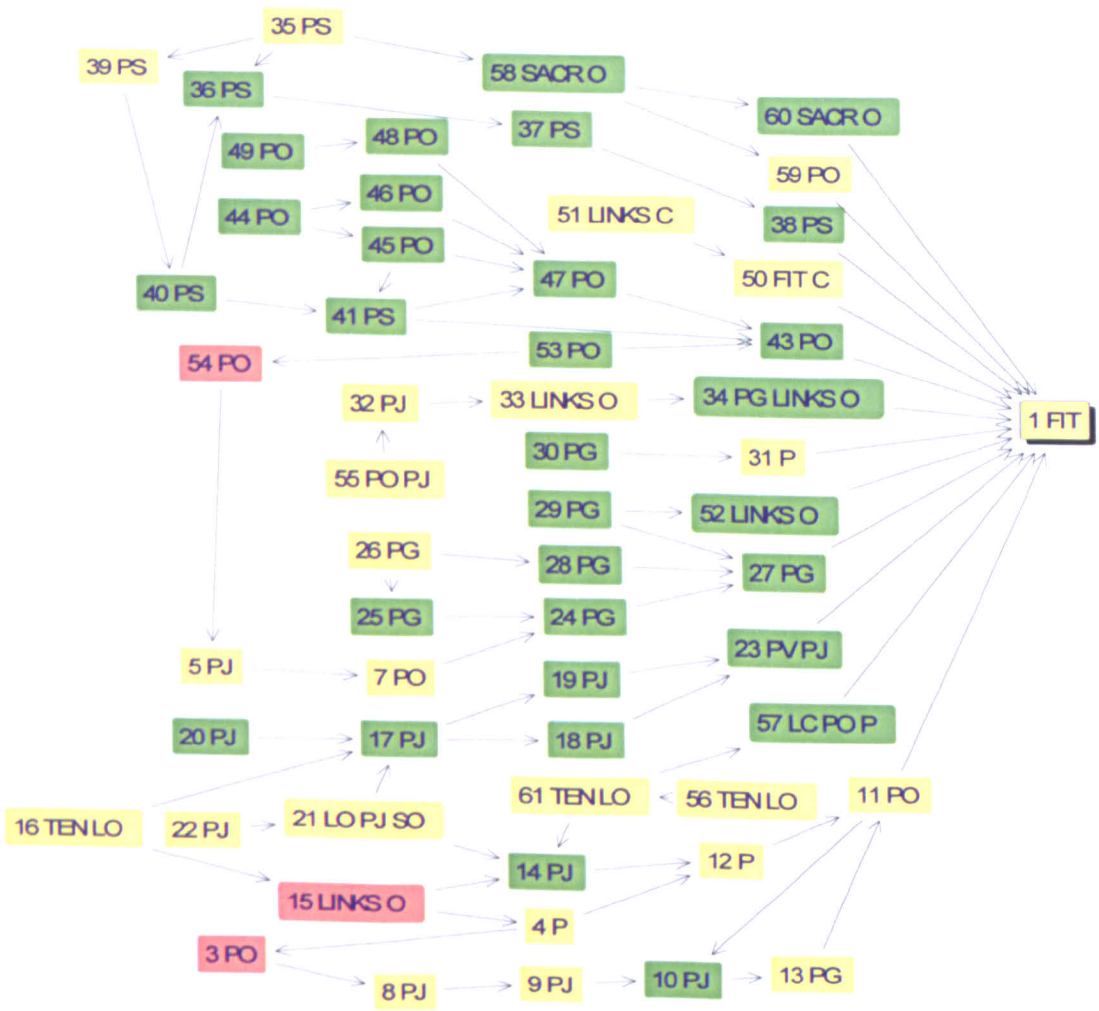


Figure 6.53 Participant 23 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

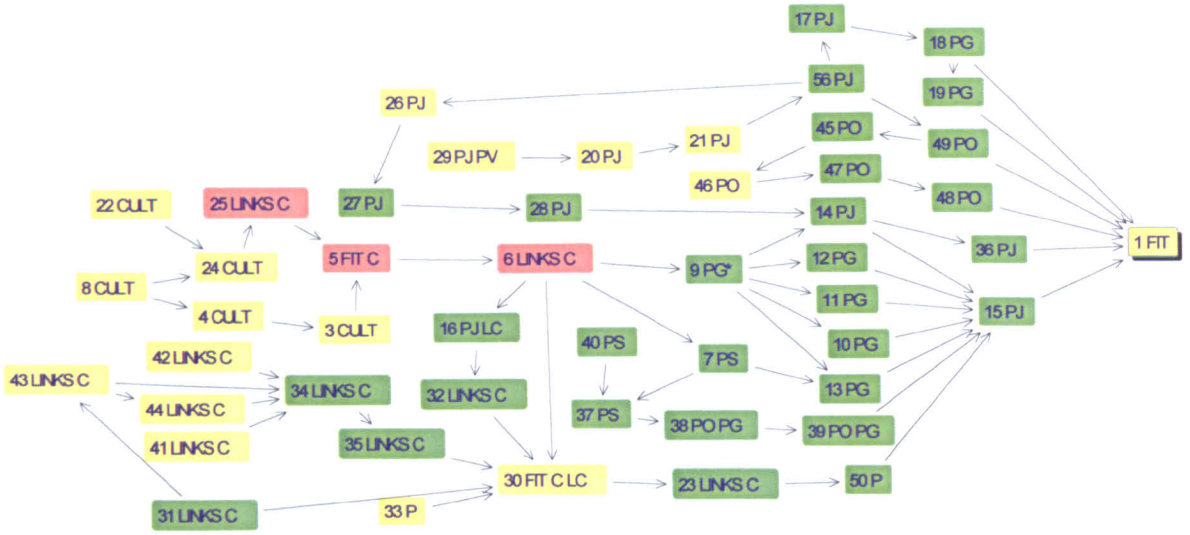


Figure 6.54 Participant 25 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

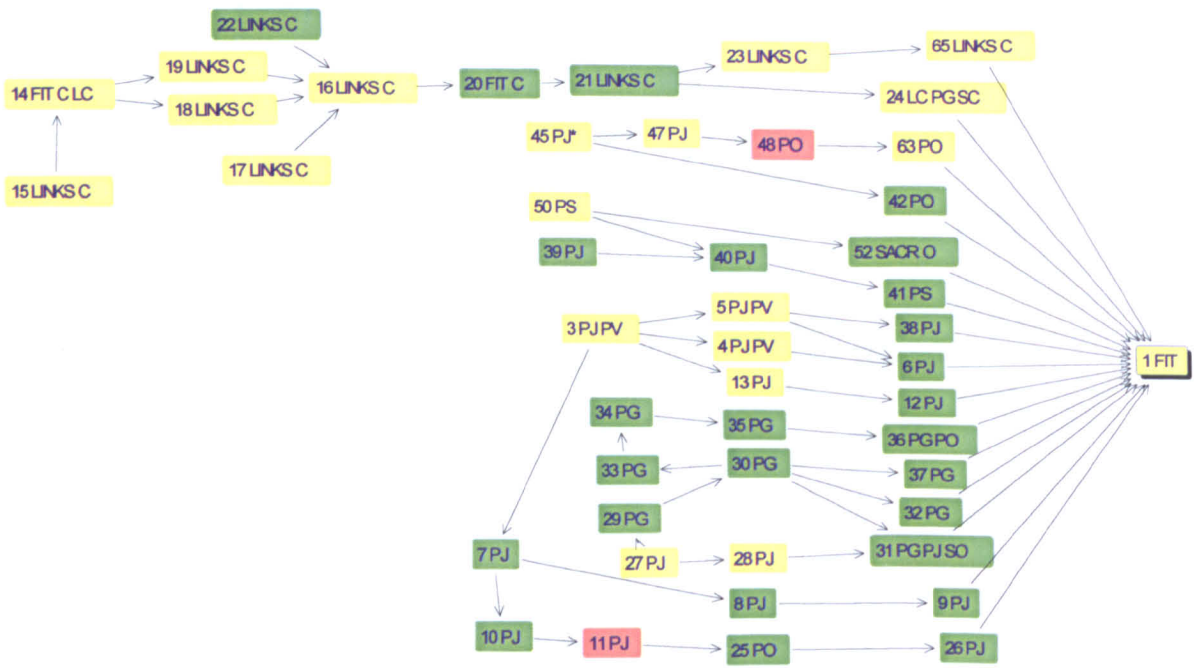


Figure 6.55 Participant 28 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

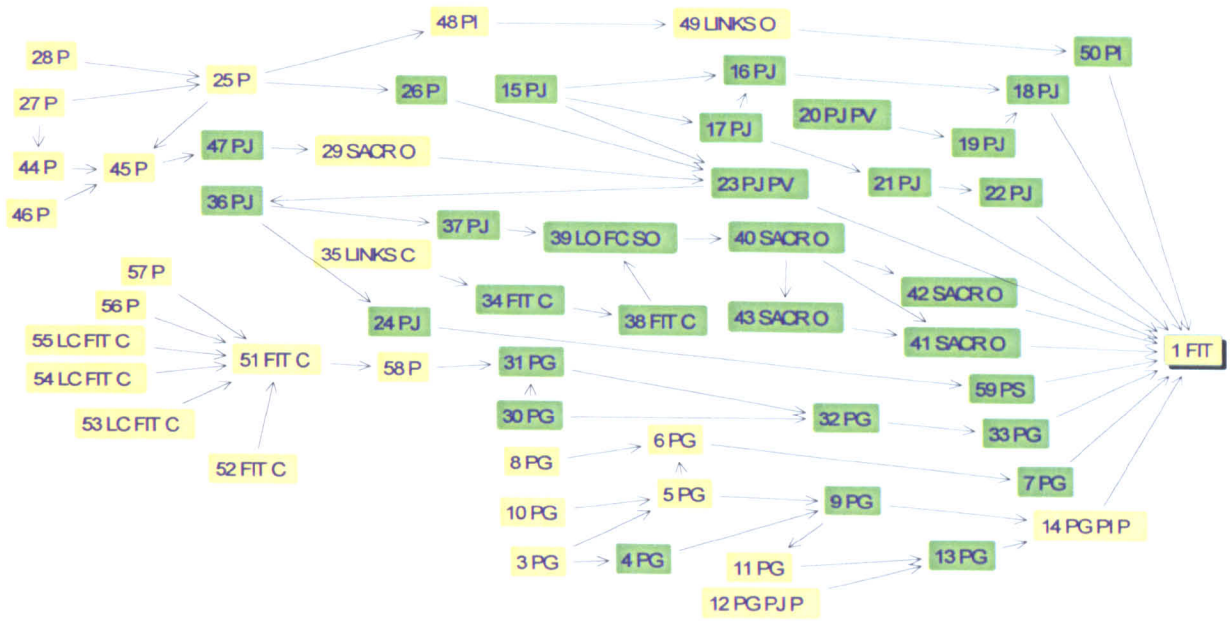


Figure 6.56 Participant 30 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

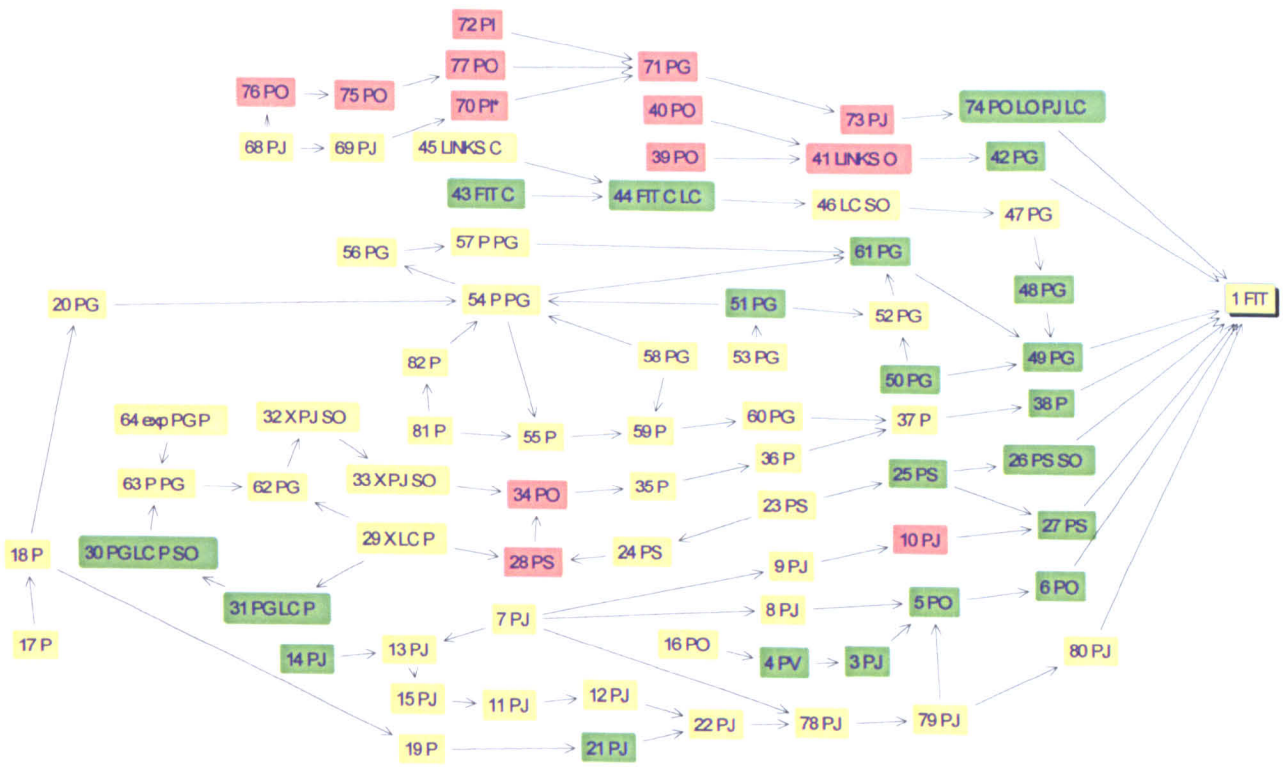


Figure 6.57 Participant 33 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

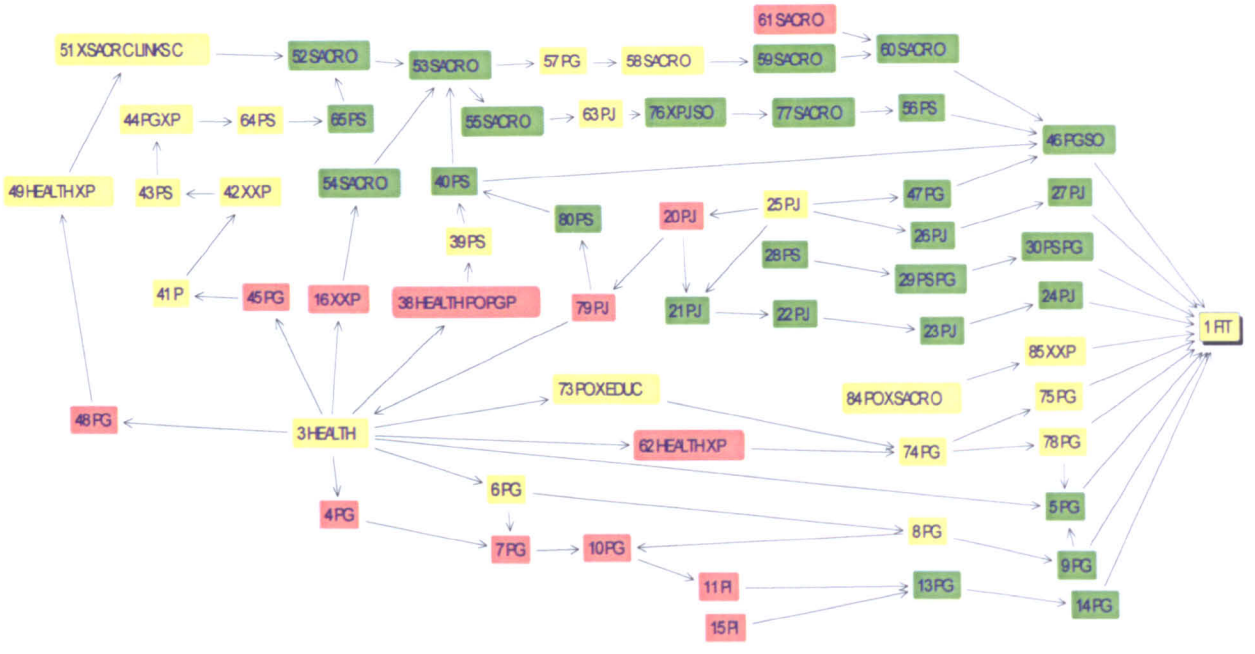


Figure 6.58 Participant 36 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

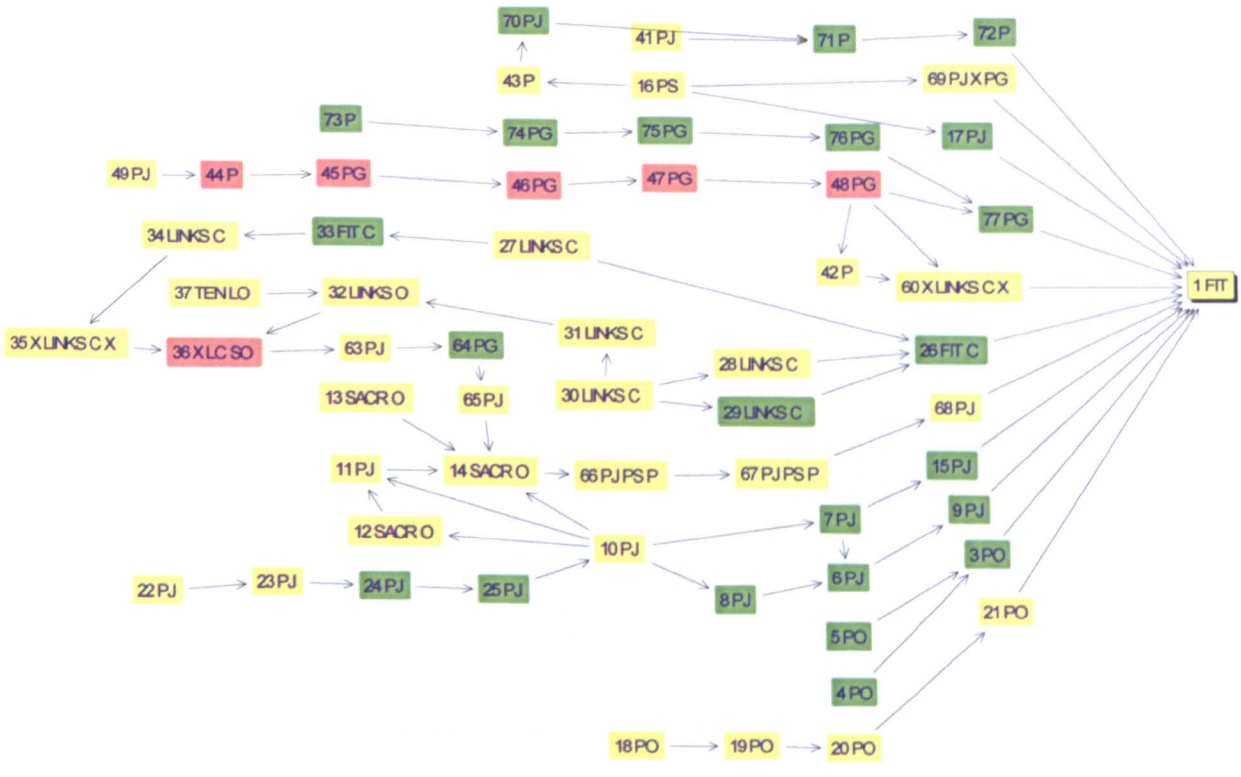


Figure 6.59 Participant 37 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Fit

The tree maps shown in figures 6.44 to 6.59 are all 'wide' or 'deep' in having long chains or many links leading into the fit head. Out of the 178 chains on these maps, two

(1.1%) were single-concept, single-dimension chains and there were 20 (11.2%) longer single-dimension chains, 6 of which were two concepts long. Conversely, there were 12 (6.6%) chains where none of the concepts were the same, but these also tended to be short chains. One example of such a chain is in figure 6.45, where participant 5 notes how having brought up her children and grandchildren (20, links-c) means that she has "more experience of life" (19, age) which results in her colleagues coming to her for advice (16, links-o) and made her feel that she had an important role in the organisation, above the low level position in which she was employed (37, PJ). This chain also has two other chains linking in to it.

Inter-linking chains are a feature of the majority of maps and therefore, although there are single dimension chains or chains which predominantly consist of one concept, many of these link to other chains. For example, in figure 6.53, participant 23 noted how several aspects of her job, particularly learning about her craft and having more of a say in how her section was organised, affected her fit at work (20, PJ – 17, PJ – 18, PJ – 19, PJ – 23, PV/PJ). However, other chains feed into this chain, particularly 16, TEN/LO and 21, LO/PJ/SO. Therefore, although the chains have been separated to analyse their composition, they often do not stand independently. For this participant, not only was the job and how this had developed important to her fit perceptions, but so too was the way in which she had started as a part-time employee (16, TEN/LO) and how when she became a full-time employee, she initially had to work across different sections (21, LO/PJ/SO) before joining a permanent team.

Participant 9's map (figure 6.46) contains loops: there is a central loop consisting of concepts 14, 49 and 10 which are part of a larger loop. This participant worked in a manufacturing job and told how his active job (21, PJ) fitted with his personality of being "a very determined character" (15, P) and a "do-first, think-later person" (19, P) leading him to have long-term personal goals (16, links C). His "ambition" (49, sacr O) and the organisation being "quite progressive" (10, sacr O) fitted well with his dislike of stagnation

(12, PJ) and enjoyment of change (11, PO) which was spurring him to "move on again" (14, PJ). This combination of personality, personal goals, enjoyment of organisational change and the opportunity for job progression form a loop of concepts of different dimensions that serve to reinforce and amplify each other (Bougon & Komocar, 1990).

Proposition 1, that causal chains leading to fit will be comprised of concepts of one dimension is not generally the case for this group of participants. Table 6.1 shows (in the row 'perfect fits' fit chains %) that there are single dimension chains as well as chains where the majority of codes are similar. It is also apparent that there are few chains where all of the concepts are different on a chain. The majority of chains fall between these extremes, where there are a number of similar concepts on a chain but different concepts are also included. From this, it appears that different dimensions of fit impact and influence each other and were not regarded independently by these employees.

The majority of fit tree maps for this group have few negative concepts. Two of the maps have no negative concepts (figures 6.44 and 6.56), four of the maps have one negative concept (figures 6.45, 6.46, 6.50 and 6.52), there are four maps with two negative concepts (6.47, 6.48, 6.49 and 6.55), a further three maps have three negative concepts (figures 6.51, 6.53 and 6.54) and participant 37's map has 6 negative concepts (figure 6.59). However, there are two maps which have a high number of negative concepts: figures 6.57 and 6.58. Participant 33 (figure 6.57) spoke about the closure of the canteen at work and that this had led to "a real loss in terms of making connections" (41, links O) with people at work. However, the recent snow had "brought people together" again (42, PG). The other negative aspect to this map related to a previous job (68, PJ) where the participant "had a personality clash" (70, PI) and "was ostracised from the team" (71, PG). He left this job "after 10 weeks" (73, PJ) and managed to secure his present position through having contacts in the organisation (74, PO/LO/PJ/LC). The reason that this individual perceived that he fitted so well in his present position was in part because he could compare it to a previous negative experience.

Participant 36 (figure 6.58) equally had negative factors influencing her fit perceptions. These centred around a serious health issue (3, health) which can be seen as a 'cluster' (Jenkins & Johnson, 1997b) on the tree map. Being ill had had both positive and negative effects: "in some ways it's made me part of the team" (5, PG) and "in some ways it's made me isolated" (4, PG). "Some people were very nasty" (10, PG) and one person in particular had been a particular problem (11, PI) but "she left and all complaints have stopped" (13, PG) and "all vindictive behaviour stopped" (14, PG). Improved relationships with colleagues and having supportive managers ("my manager and his manager have both been very supportive" (40, PS)) together with a number of adjustments being made (53, 54, 55 Sacr O) meant that this employee felt that she fitted well, despite difficult circumstances and the initial negative behaviour by some colleagues. This person, like participant 33, also reflected on past experiences and noted that "before the time off [due to ill health] I was looking for other jobs" (20, PJ) and that her previous employer would have been less understanding (61, Sacr O).

In relation to proposition 2 therefore, for individuals who fit well at work, positive concepts generally connected to the fit head but the inclusion of negative concepts did not necessarily indicate misfit. Rather, negative concepts tended to arise where individuals had overcome negative circumstances and these helped them to contextualise their fit. They had experienced difficult situations and appreciated that their fit was good compared to how it had been.

6.4.6 The Perfect Fits' Causal Maps – Chains Leading to Misfit

This section shows the misfit tree maps for the participants who said that they fitted well at work (scoring 5 on the misfit – fit scale). Participants 5 and 17 did not perceive themselves to misfit in any way so there are no misfit tree maps for these individuals.

Figure 6.60 Participant 4 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

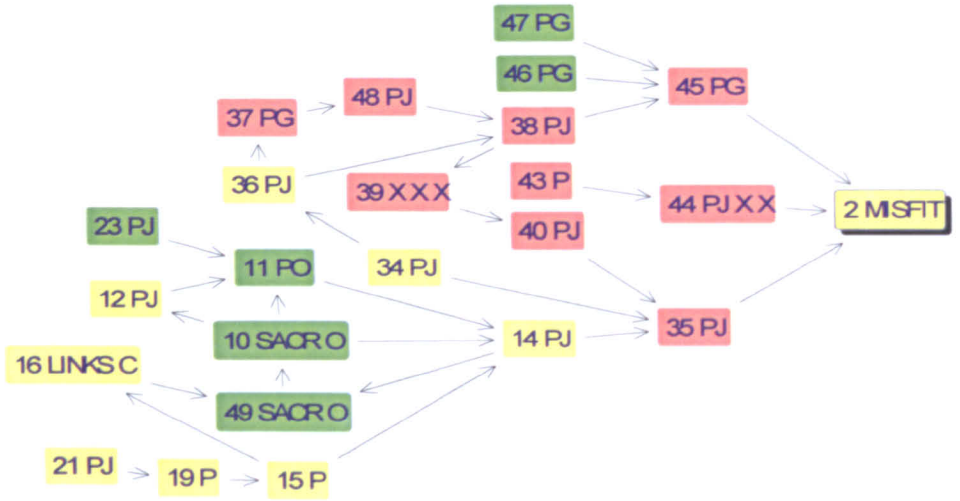


Figure 6.61 Participant 9 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

Figure 6.62 Participant 11 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

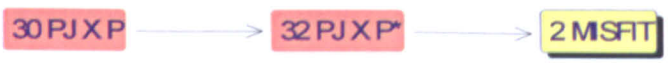


Figure 6.63 Participant 14 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

Figure 6.64 Participant 16 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

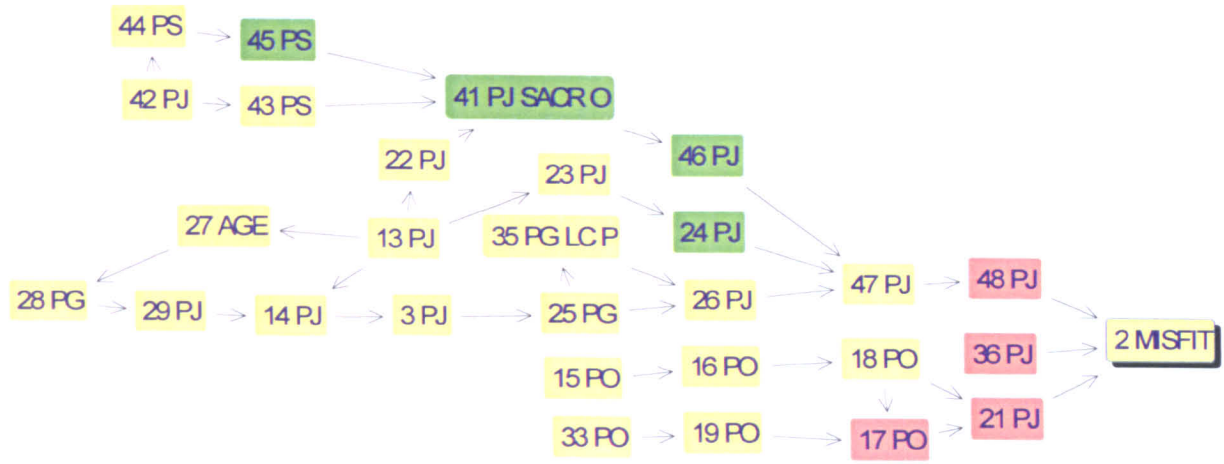


Figure 6.65 Participant 21 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

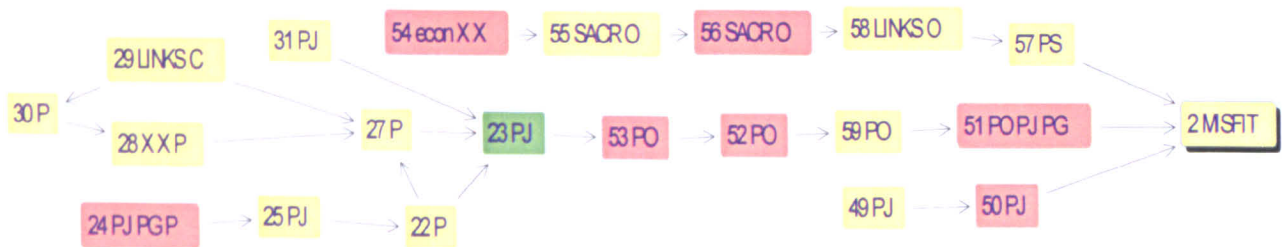


Figure 6.66 Participant 22 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

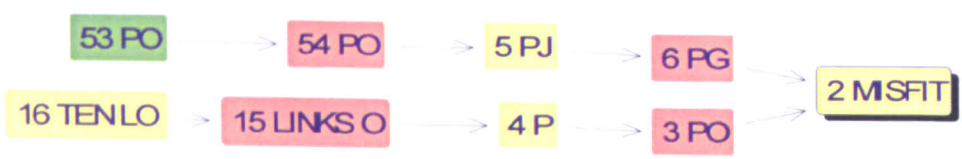


Figure 6.67 Participant 23 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

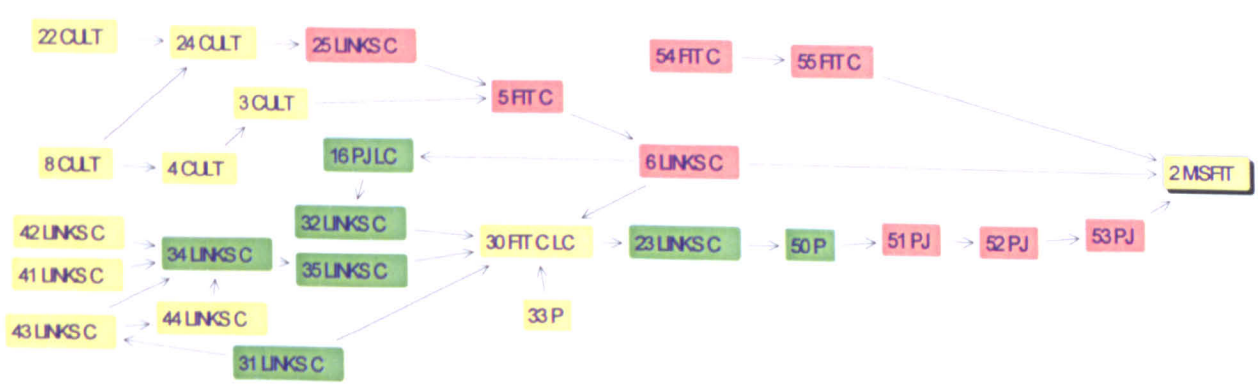


Figure 6.68 Participant 25 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

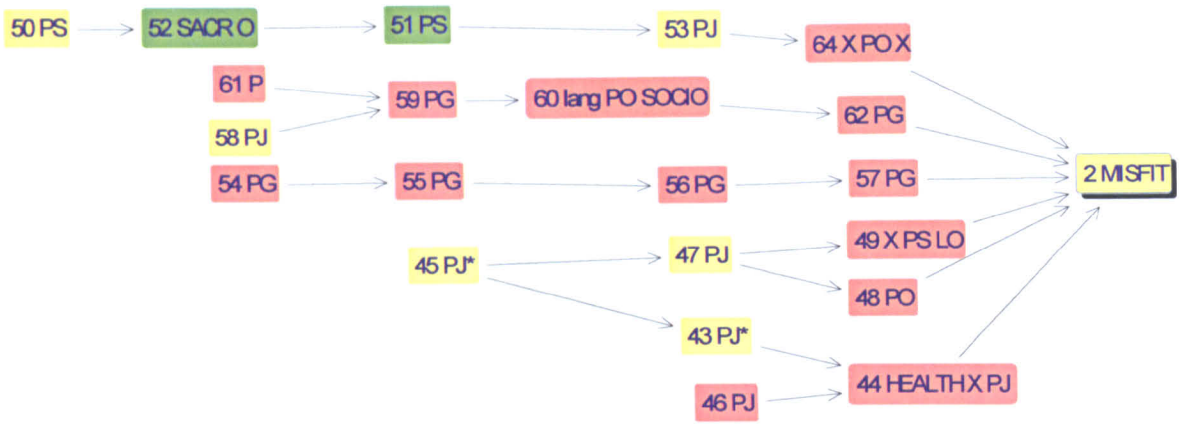


Figure 6.69 Participant 28 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

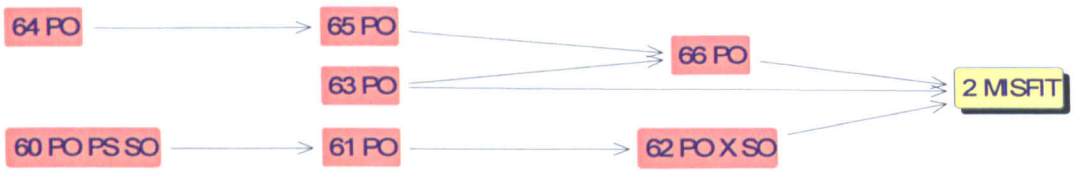


Figure 6.70 Participant 30 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

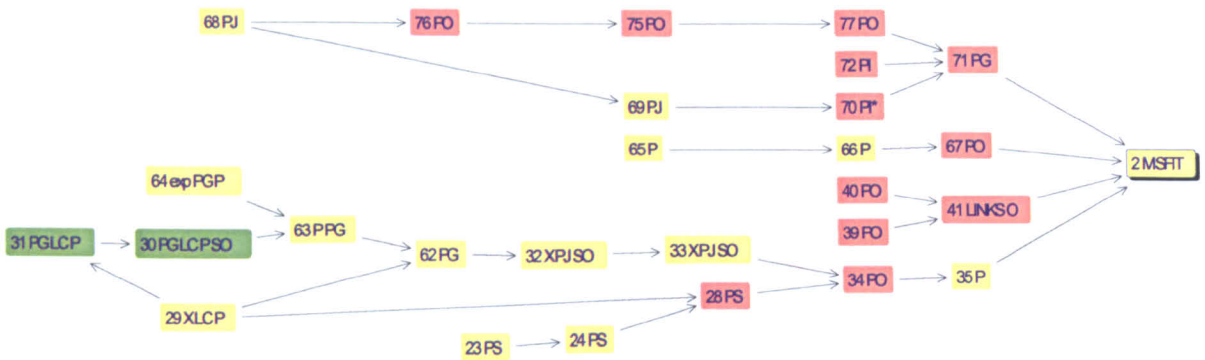


Figure 6.71 Participant 33 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

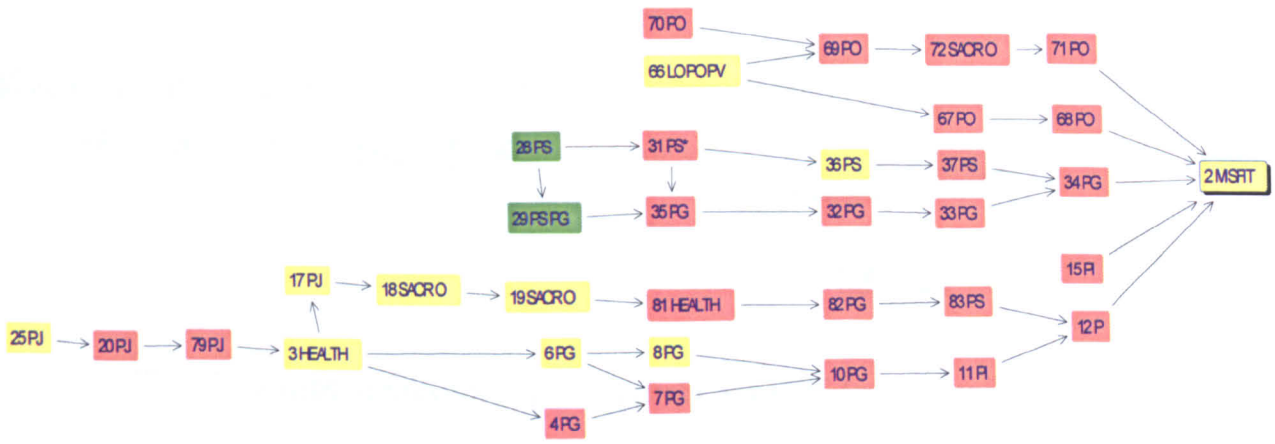


Figure 6.72 Participant 36 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

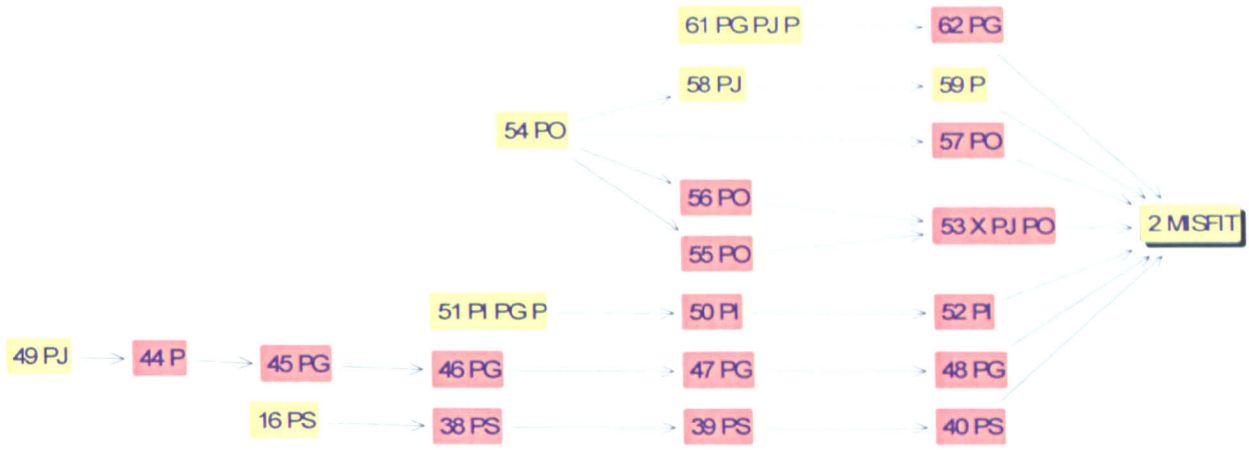


Figure 6.73 Participant 37 (fit) – Causal Chains leading to Misfit

The misfit tree maps for the participants who perceived that they fitted well are generally simple maps with figures 6.60, 6.62, 6.63, 6.64, 6.67 and 6.70 being particularly low on concepts. For participant 4 (figure 6.60), the only factors making him perceive any misfit were related to the organisation being "conservative and risk adverse" which was contrary to his own preference for taking risks. Participant 11 (figure 6.62) noted that she found English difficult which was the only cause of misfit on her map. Participant 14 said "sometimes I feel down" and that "12 months ago I hit crisis point" (figure 6.63) but she had overcome the problems which had led to a temporary misfit. Participant 16 (figure 6.64) said simply "I wouldn't be here if I didn't fit".

The remaining tree maps have longer causal chains and only one of these, figure 6.71, has no single-dimension chains. The majority of single dimension chains for these participants are very short however, with seven out of the ten single-dimension chains having only two concepts. One such chain is in figure 6.68, which has a causal chain of two negative Fit C concepts. This participant said that she hated the weather in the UK (54, Fit C) and that she planned to move back to her home country in a few years' time (55, Fit C). Many of the concepts on participant 25's misfit tree map relate to the cultural differences between the UK and her home country but one key factor, and a cluster on her map, was "turning it around" (30, Fit C/Links C) where this individual had made a

conscious decision that she needed to improve her social networks in order to improve her fit.

Figure 6.69 has a causal chain made up of four negative PG concepts which relate to other professionals working alongside participant 28. She notes how these colleagues "can go at it like a bull in a china shop" (54, PG), that "they don't understand that there's a whole process to go through" (55, PG) and "they upset people I've spent time nurturing" (56, PG). However, she notes that what this culminates in is "not really misfit, just them rattling my cage!" (57, PG). The two single-dimension causal chain in figure 6.70 are made up of PO fit concepts which centre on a lack of decision making and business drivers in local government. On figure 6.73 there is one causal chain of only PS coded concepts, where participant 37 notes that she works for several managers (16, PS) but that one of them "doesn't work as hard as the others" (38, PS), that she's "less inclined to help that one" (39, PS) and that "to that person, I'm not as good a fit as to the others" (40, PS).

The maps for this group of participants, like the tree maps in the preceding sections for participants who perceive that they misfit and those who more-fit-than-misfit, show that there are chains where the majority of codes are similar on the causal chains, yet there are also chains which include a wider range of codes. Table 6.1, in the row 'perfect fits' misfit chains' shows that many of the chains fall somewhere between the two extremes, with 24.6% of these chains having more than 50% but fewer than 66% similar concepts. Proposition 1, that causal chains influencing either fit or misfit will be comprised of concept of one dimension is shown not to be the case for any of the separate groups on the misfit to fit scale nor for the group of participants overall and additionally, the pattern of how concepts are distributed on chains is similar between the different groups. This is shown in figure 6.74 below, where the data are taken from table 6.1.

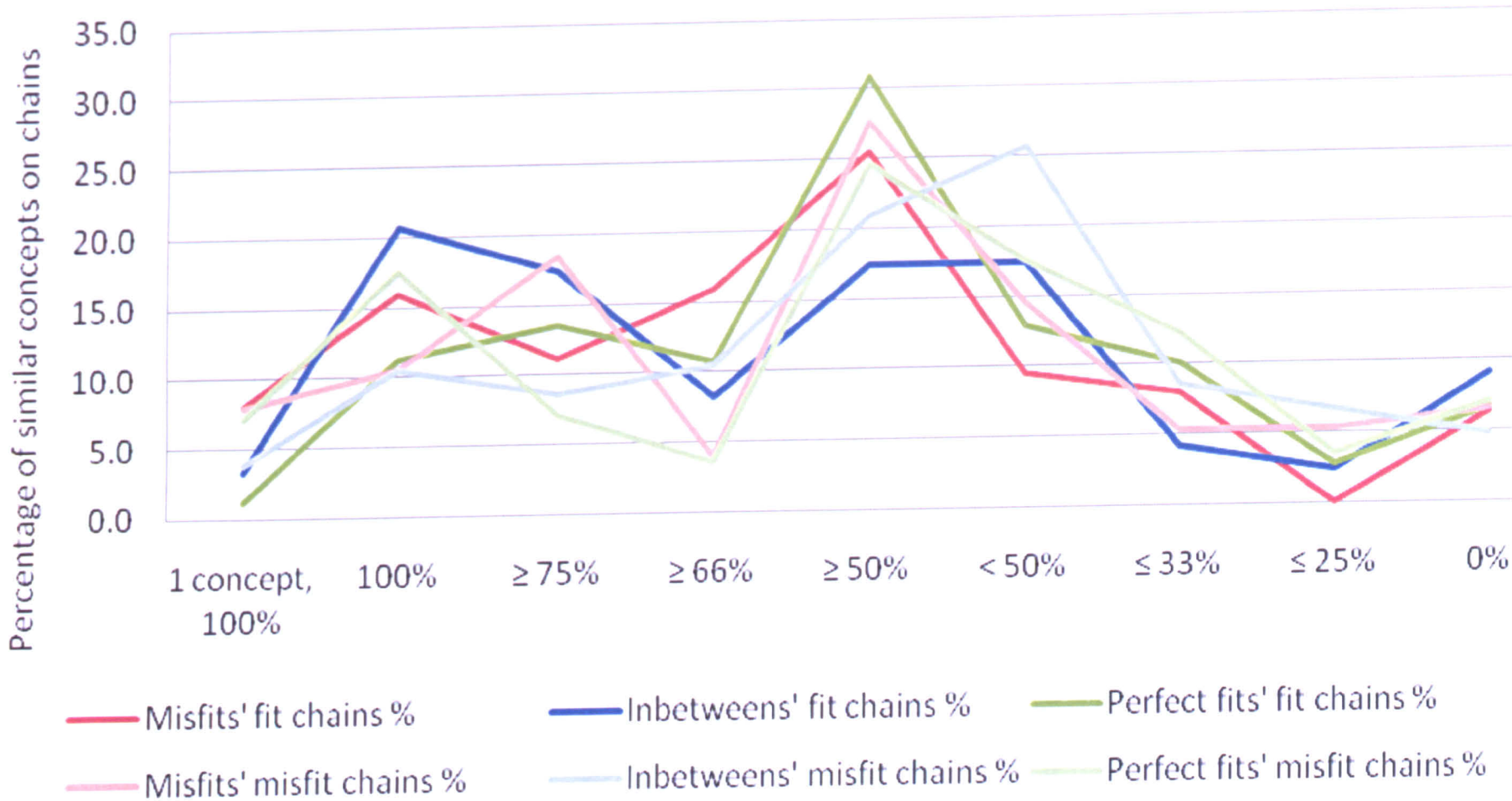


Figure 6.74 Percentages of Similar Concepts on the Participants' Causal Map Chains

The misfit tree maps for the participants who fitted well at work feature neutral, negative and positive concepts. The majority of concepts are negative and six of the maps feature no positive concepts at all. Participant 21's map (figure 6.65) contains four positive concepts which centre on the autonomy that she had in her role and that her managers "trust me to get on with it" (45, PS). This autonomy means that "sometimes I make unpopular decisions or deliver unpopular messages" (47, PJ) and that in her role "... you have to be prepared to be unpopular" (48, PJ). Thus positive elements in a role can have negative outcomes and this is shown in the seven maps with positive concepts in causal chains leading to misfit.

On the whole proposition 2, that positively phrased concepts will connect to the fit head, negatively phrased concepts to the misfit head and neutrally phrased concepts will connect to the fit and misfit heads evenly, mostly holds true. Individuals did cite negative factors in relation to misfit and positive factors in relation to fit. There were seven tree maps of causal chains leading to fit which contained only positive and neutral elements (figures 6.2, 6.5, 6.22, 6.24, 6.28, 6.44 and 6.56) and eight misfit tree maps contained only negative and neutral concepts (figures 6.31, 6.32, 6.40, 6.42, 6.62, 6.63, 6.70 and 6.73). However, the other 58 tree maps for fit and misfit all contained mixed positive, negative and neutral concepts. Given this, it can be concluded that although positive factors generally relate to fit perceptions and negative factors to misfit, individuals may perceive themselves to fit despite there being negative aspects to their work and equally, employees can perceive that they misfit even when they recognise that there are positive facets to their working lives. It is whether the positive factors outweigh the negatives, or vice versa, that determines whether a person perceives that they fit or misfit.

Section 2 The Content of the Causal Maps

6.5 Propositions 3 and 4.

Section 1 addressed research propositions 1 and 2: whether causal chains consisted of concepts of one dimension and whether causal chains leading to the fit head comprised positive and neutral concepts and misfit chains consisted of negative and neutral concepts. This section focuses on research propositions 3 and 4:

P3 Fit and misfit are multi-dimensional, i.e. they are caused by multiple factors:

- P3a by the same dimensions
- P3b in the same proportions

P4 Fit and misfit are caused by the same dimensions of PE fit:

- P4a Person-Organisation Fit
- P4b Person-Job Fit
- P4c Person-Vocation Fit
- P4d Person-Supervisor Fit
- P4e Person-Group Fit
- P4f Person-Individual Fit

This section uses the same data as section 1: the agreed coding for each participant's causal map. Each map was analysed to assess the number of times each of the codes had been used in relation to fit and misfit and these data were standardised to give the percentage figures for each code. These data were aggregated and are shown below in table 6.2.

Table 6.2 shows that using the agreed coding rather than the coding from all three coders (as used in chapter 5) gives very similar results. The main difference between table 5.2 (which shows the total number of times each of the codes was used by the three coders) and table 6.2 is for the uncoded concepts, shown in the penultimate row in the table. Using one code that the coders agreed on eliminates those instances where a concept was coded and agreed upon by two members of the coding team but not coded by one person. As a consequence, the total for 'no code' is reduced and eliminating the uncoded items has the effect of increasing the PE total due to slight increases in each of the PO, PJ and PG codes.

Table 6.2 further shows that some of the codes were infrequently used. Looking down the total column of the table, there are six codes: dress, work-life balance, economic factors (econ), facilities, language and JE which were never used as codes agreed by two or more of the coding team and can be eliminated from further data analysis. Other codes such as race (which was only used once), gender, religion, education, sacrifice-community and experience were each used in coding a very small number of concepts and their role in shaping individuals' fit and misfit perceptions is more fully discussed in section 6.10.

Table 6.2 Agreed Coding Frequency Table for All Participants' Causal Map Data

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	TOTAL	%
PO	248	14.4	232	19.7	480	16.5
PJ	447	25.9	217	18.4	664	22.9
PG	296	17.1	226	19.2	522	18.0
PV	43	2.5	14	1.2	57	2.0
PS	121	7.0	133	11.3	254	8.7
PI	14	0.8	28	2.4	42	1.4
TOTAL	1169	67.7	850	72.2	2019	69.5
AGE	5	0.3	6	0.5	11	0.4
TENURE	27	1.6	10	0.8	37	1.3
GENDER	2	0.1	3	0.3	5	0.2
RACE	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.0
SOCIO	17	1.0	24	2.0	41	1.4
RELIGION	2	0.1	2	0.2	4	0.1
EDUC	4	0.2	1	0.1	5	0.2
TOTAL	57	3.3	47	4.0	104	3.6
FIT C	40	2.3	23	2.0	63	2.2
LINKS C	112	6.5	48	4.1	160	5.5
LINKS O	50	2.9	29	2.5	79	2.7
SACR C	3	0.2	3	0.3	6	0.2
SACR O	118	6.8	51	4.3	169	5.8
TOTAL	323	18.7	154	13.1	477	16.4
P	145	8.4	92	7.8	237	8.2
CULT	17	1.0	24	2.0	41	1.4
exp	1	0.1	1	0.1	2	0.1
DRESS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
HEALTH	7	0.4	3	0.3	10	0.3
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	170	9.8	120	10.2	290	10.0
NO CODE	8	0.5	6	0.5	14	0.5
Total	1727	100.0	1177	100.0	2904	100.0

6.6 Proposition 3 – The Multi-Dimensionality of Fit and Misfit

In order to assess whether fit and misfit are multi-dimensional and caused by the same PE fit dimensions, the data are presented in radial diagram form. Radial diagrams, also known as spider diagrams, are useful in giving a visual overview of the data and are thus used as an adjunct to the frequency tables to more clearly show for each group of participants which of the dimensions is particularly relevant (or irrelevant) in relation to fit and misfit. Each radial diagram shows the PE, JE, organisational demography and additional codes on its axes, excluding the six codes which were not used. The red lines on the diagrams relate to the codes used for the misfit concepts on individuals' maps and the blue lines show the codes used for the fit concepts on the maps. The lines running between the axes give the percentages. The diagrams below show the aggregated data for those participants who considered themselves to misfit, those who said that they more fitted than misfitted and 'the perfect fits': those participants who stated at the end of the interview process that they fitted at work.

If fit and misfit were multi-dimensional, the radial diagrams would show that similar proportions of the PO, PJ, PS, PG, PV and PI fit dimensions were cited in relation to both fit and misfit, as the fictitious example in figure 6.75 illustrates. As discussed in chapter 3, PE fit theory proposes that misfit occurs where there is an absence of fit (e.g. Edwards, 2008) and that PE fit is multi-dimensional (e.g. Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006): an employee may be a 'good fit', due to high congruence with the organisation, job, co-workers, vocation, supervisor and other individuals or a misfit due to a lack of congruence in these areas. It would therefore be expected that individuals who fit well at work would cite each of the PE fit dimensions as contributing to their fit perceptions. People who misfit may, in contrast, either say that they do not fit on a particular dimension (an absence of fit) or conversely, it may be negatively expressed for each dimension. There is therefore

a theoretical relationship between fit and misfit: as one declines, the other increases; if one is absent, the other is present.

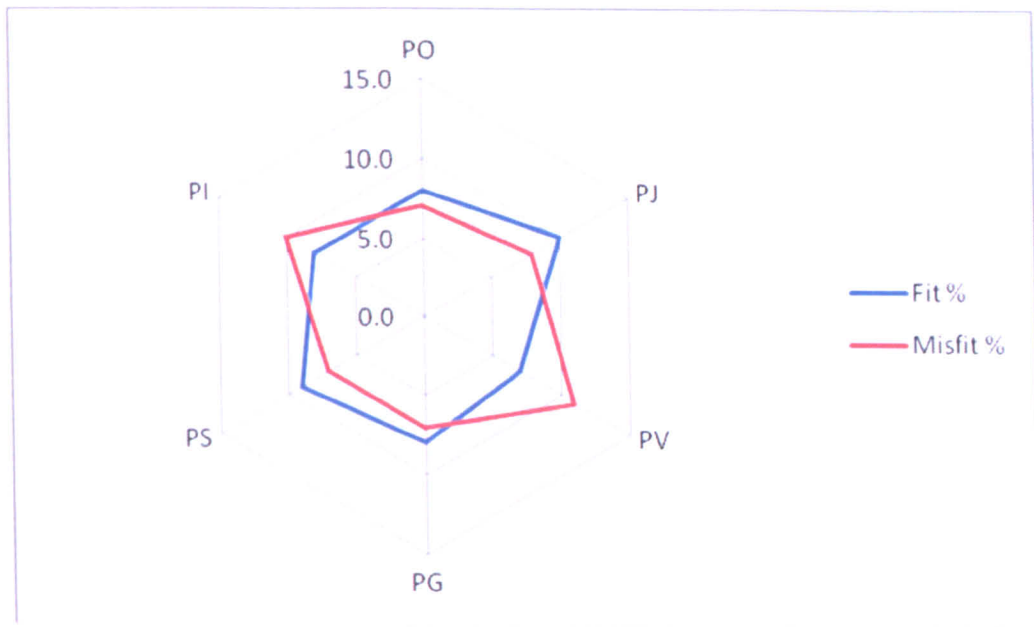


Figure 6.75 Radial Diagram of Multi-Dimensional Fit and Misfit

As noted in the literature review (chapter 3) however, although PE fit is recognised to be multi-dimensional, the 'salience' of particular dimensions at specific times in the employment relationship may play a part in how relevant particular dimensions of fit are to an individual. Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) noted that individual differences (in personality), environmental differences (such as the organisation's size and culture) and employees' stage of employment may impact on what is salient. For example, at the pre-employment stage, a person may be particularly focused on their vocational fit and this may then have particular salience for the individual. If the salience of particular elements of the working environment plays a part, it could be expected that for some individuals, particular dimensions of fit are seen to be especially prominent, as in figure 6.76.

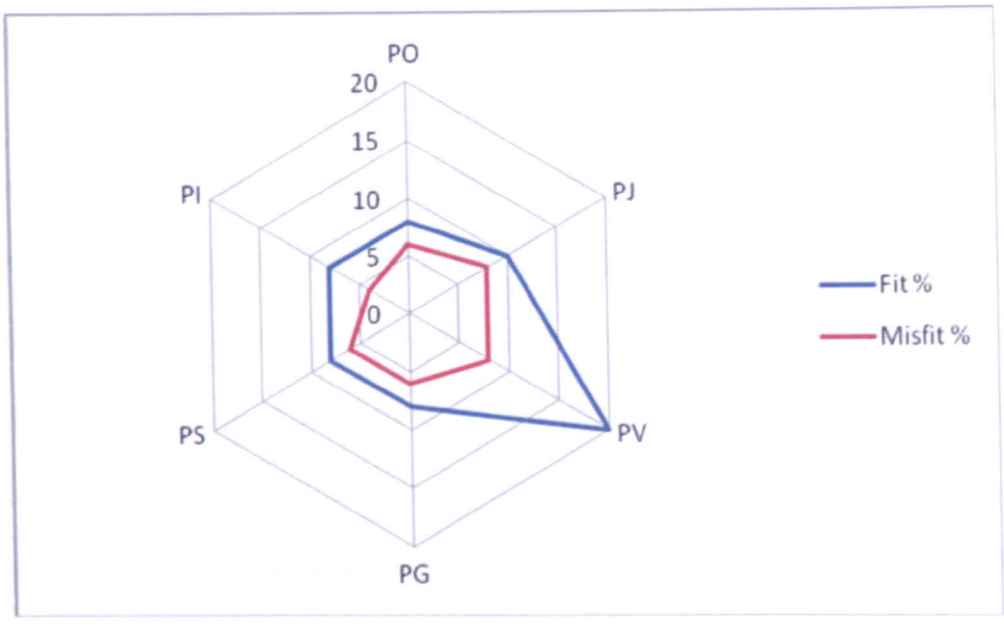


Figure 6.76 Radial Diagram of Multi-dimensional Fit and Misfit where PV fit is Salient

Given that a range of employees in different types of jobs and organisations was sampled for this study, it would be expected that when combining the data from each map, individual level effects would be evened out.

The composite radial diagrams shown below are thus used to analyse whether fit and misfit are multi-dimensional and caused by the same dimensions. These diagrams effectively show the proportion of the groups' causal maps devoted to fit and misfit and the relative levels (as percentages) of each of the codes used. Table 6.2 gives the figures for all of the participants' causal map coding and tables 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5 give the figures used to compile the radial diagrams for the participants who felt that they misfitted at work, the 'in-between' participants and those who perceived that they fitted well, in order that the exact percentages can be seen as well as the overall pattern of distribution which is depicted by the radial diagrams.

6.6.1 The Misfits' Radial Diagram

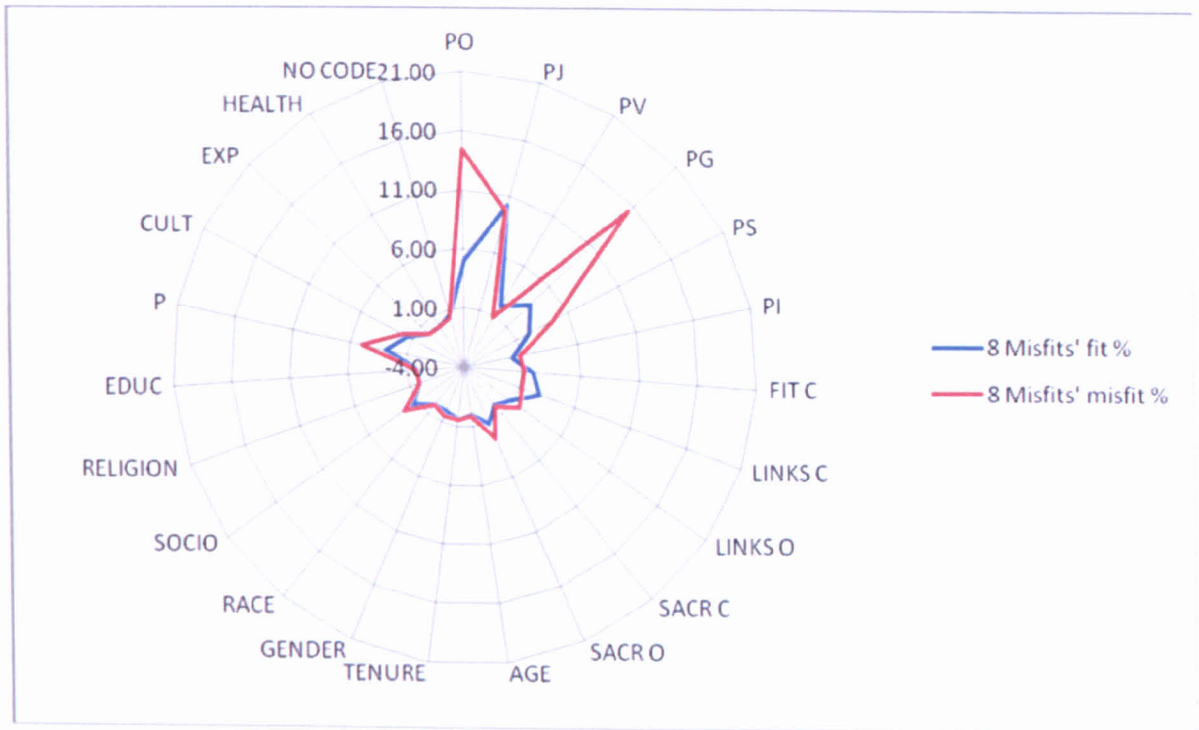


Figure 6.77 Radial Diagram of the Codes used for the Misfits' Maps

6.6.2 The In-Betweens – More Fit Than Misfit – Radial Diagram

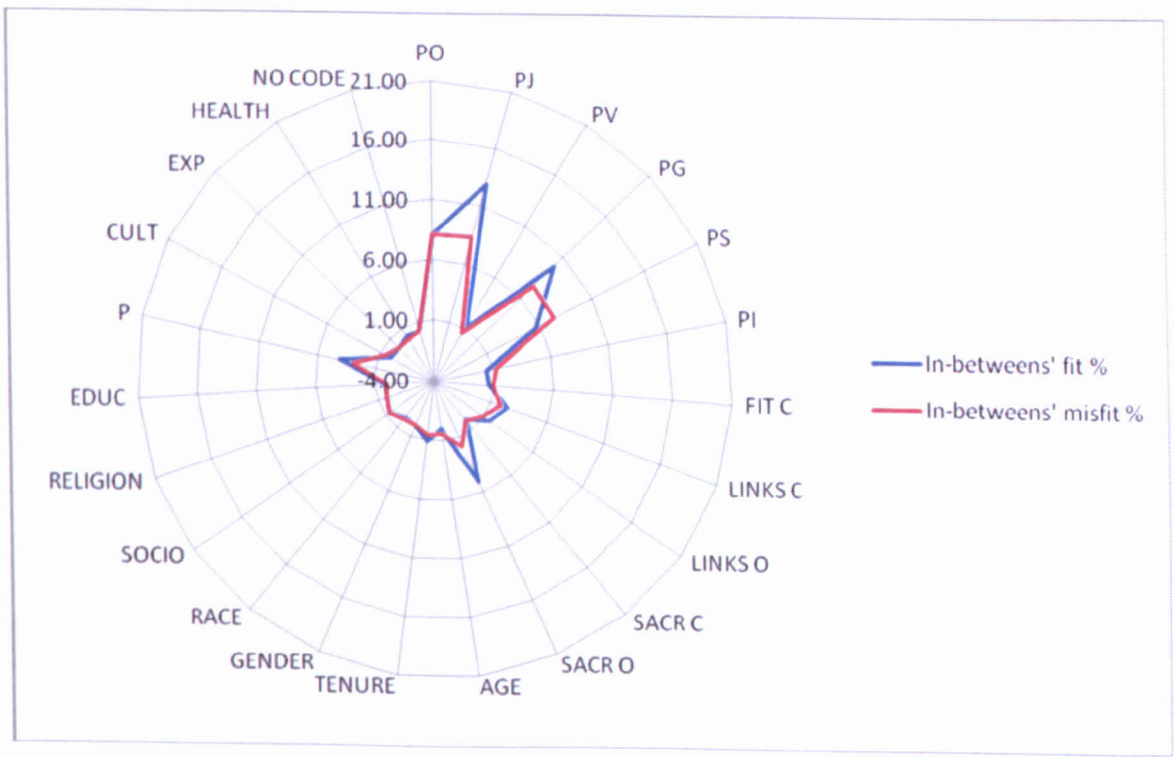


Figure 6.78 Radial Diagram of the Codes used for the 'In-Betweens' Maps

6.6.3 The Perfect Fits' Radial Diagram

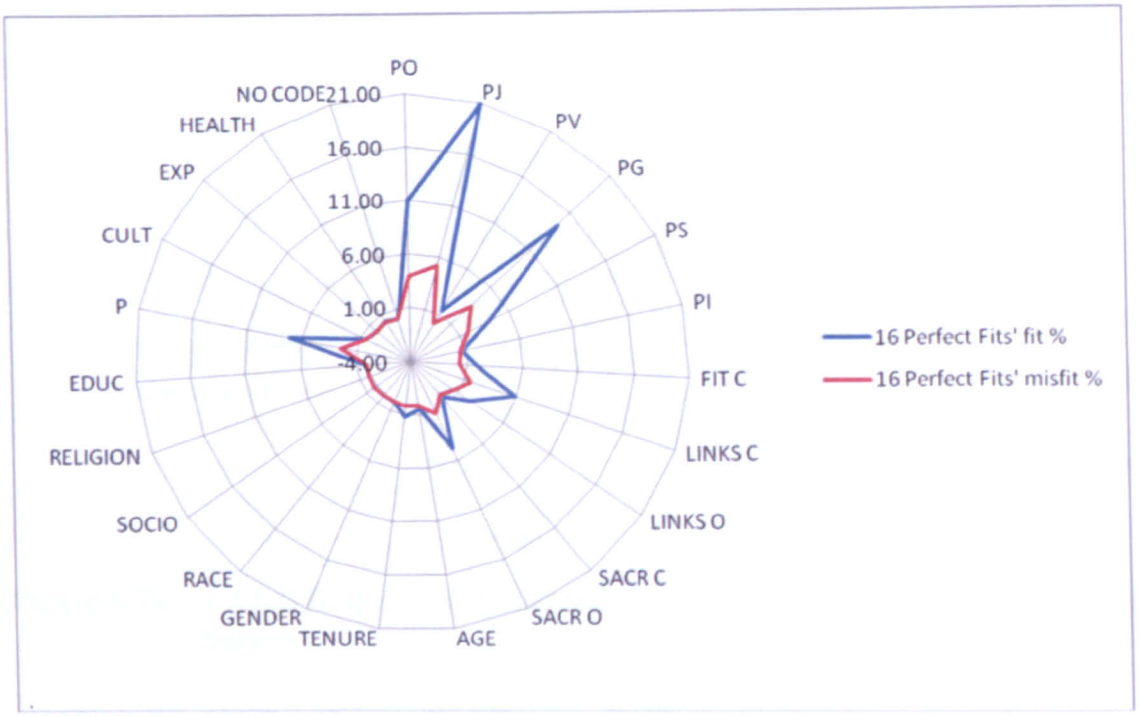


Figure 6.79 Radial Diagram of the Codes used for the Perfect Fits' Maps

6.6.4 All Participants' Radial Diagram

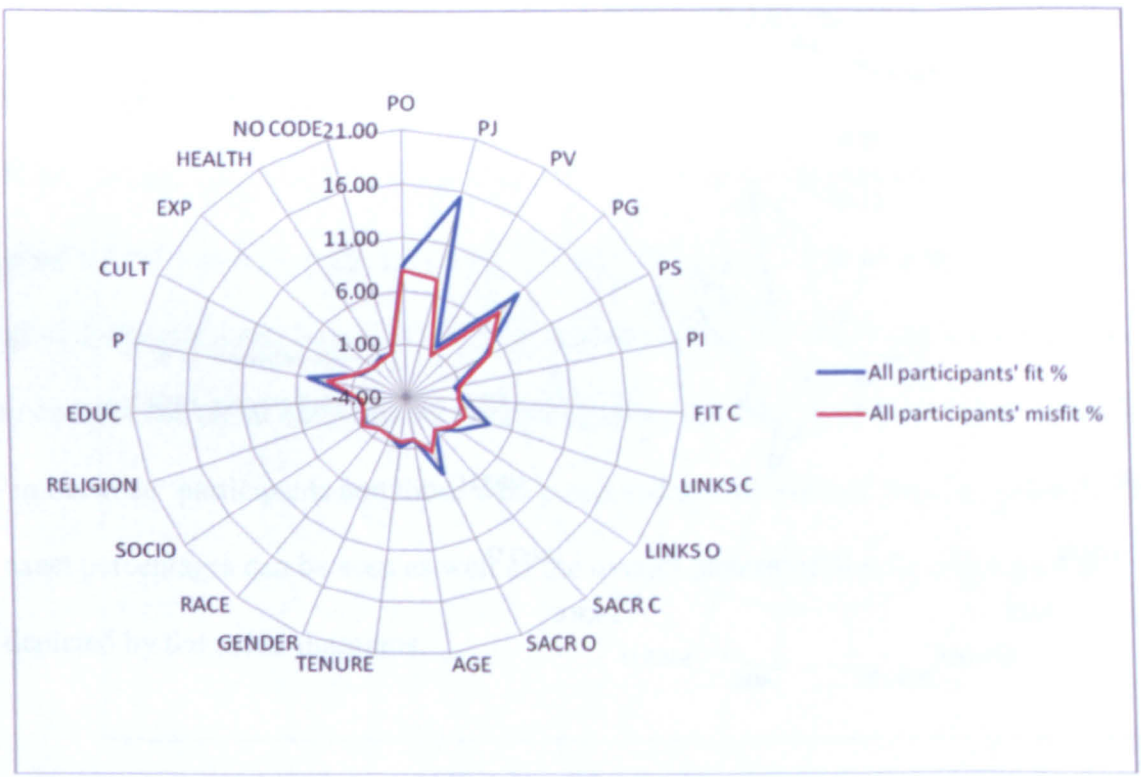


Figure 6.80 Radial Diagram of Codes used for All Participants' Maps

Table 6.3 Agreed Coding Frequency Table for the Misfits' Causal Map Data

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	total	%
PO	34	5.0	98	14.5	132	19.5
PJ	69	10.2	66	9.7	135	19.9
PG	25	3.7	104	15.3	129	19.0
PV	14	2.1	6	0.9	20	2.9
PS	15	2.2	31	4.6	46	6.8
PI	1	0.1	6	0.9	7	1.0
TOTAL	158	23.3	311	45.9	469	69.2
AGE	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.1
TENURE	3	0.4	3	0.4	6	0.9
GENDER	0	0.0	3	0.4	3	0.4
RACE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SOCIO	10	1.5	16	2.4	26	3.8
RELIGION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDUC	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.1
TOTAL	13	1.9	24	3.5	37	5.5
FIT C	13	1.9	8	1.2	21	3.1
LINKS C	19	2.8	8	1.2	27	4.0
LINKS O	5	0.7	12	1.8	17	2.5
SACR C	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.1
SACR O	8	1.2	17	2.5	25	3.7
TOTAL	45	6.6	46	6.8	91	13.4
P	19	2.8	33	4.9	52	7.7
CULT	10	1.5	13	1.9	23	3.4
exp	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
DRESS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
HEALTH	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	29	4.3	46	6.8	75	11.1
NO CODE	4	0.6	2	0.3	6	0.9
Total	249	36.7	429	63.3	678	100.0

Table 6.4 Agreed Coding Frequency Table for the In-Betweens' Causal Map Data

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	TOTAL	%
PO	89	8.2	89	8.2	178	16.4
PJ	140	12.9	91	8.4	231	21.2
PG	107	9.8	82	7.5	189	17.4
PV	12	1.1	7	0.6	19	1.7
PS	61	5.6	81	7.4	142	13.1
PI	5	0.5	15	1.4	20	1.8
TOTAL	414	38.1	365	33.5	779	71.6
AGE	0	0.0	4	0.4	4	0.4
TENURE	11	1.0	6	0.6	17	1.6
GENDER	1	0.1	0	0.0	1	0.1
RACE	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.1
SOCIO	7	0.6	7	0.6	14	1.3
RELIGION	2	0.2	2	0.2	4	0.4
EDUC	2	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.2
TOTAL	23	2.1	20	1.8	43	4.0
FIT C	6	0.6	11	1.0	17	1.6
LINKS C	27	2.5	21	1.9	48	4.4
LINKS O	18	1.7	11	1.0	29	2.7
SACR C	1	0.1	2	0.2	3	0.3
SACR O	55	5.1	20	1.8	75	6.9
TOTAL	107	9.8	65	6.0	172	15.8
P	45	4.1	32	2.9	77	7.1
CULT	2	0.2	6	0.6	8	0.7
exp	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
DRESS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
HEALTH	3	0.3	0	0.0	3	0.3
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	50	4.6	38	3.5	88	8.1
NO CODE	3	0.3	3	0.3	6	0.6
Total	597	54.9	491	45.1	1088	100.0

Table 6.5 Agreed Coding Frequency Table for the Perfect Fits' Causal Map Data

CODE	FIT	%	MISFIT	%	TOTAL	%
PO	125	11.0	45	4.0	170	14.9
PJ	238	20.9	60	5.3	298	26.2
PG	164	14.4	40	3.5	204	17.9
PV	17	1.5	1	0.1	18	1.6
PS	45	4.0	21	1.8	66	5.8
PI	8	0.7	7	0.6	15	1.3
TOTAL	597	52.5	174	15.3	771	67.8
AGE	5	0.4	1	0.1	6	0.5
TENURE	13	1.1	1	0.1	14	1.2
GENDER	1	0.1	0	0.0	1	0.1
RACE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SOCIO	0	0.0	1	0.1	1	0.1
RELIGION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDUC	2	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.2
TOTAL	21	1.8	3	0.3	24	2.1
FIT C	21	1.8	4	0.4	25	2.2
LINKS C	66	5.8	19	1.7	85	7.5
LINKS O	27	2.4	6	0.5	33	2.9
SACR C	2	0.2	0	0.0	2	0.2
SACR O	55	4.8	14	1.2	69	6.1
TOTAL	171	15.0	43	3.8	214	18.8
P	81	7.1	27	2.4	108	9.5
CULT	5	0.4	5	0.4	10	0.9
exp	1	0.1	1	0.1	2	0.2
DRESS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
HEALTH	4	0.4	3	0.3	7	0.6
WL BAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
econ	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
facilities	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
language	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
JE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL	91	8.0	36	3.2	127	11.2
NO CODE	1	0.1	1	0.1	2	0.2
Total	881	77.4	257	22.6	1138	100.0

The composite radial diagram for the 8 misfits' data (figure 6.77) is drawn from the data presented in table 6.3. There are peaks on the radial diagram on the PO and PG fit axes as this group of participants cited organisational and group factors most frequently in relation to their misfit. The red and blue lines converge on the PJ fit axis as job factors were cited roughly equally in relation to both fit (10.2%) and misfit (9.7%). Out of the factors that this group cited in relation to their fit perceptions, job factors were far more frequently mentioned than any other aspect of work or the participants' lives outside of work. The shape of the radial diagram indicates that out of the PE fit dimensions, PV and PI fit had virtually no role in affecting their fit or misfit. Personality was perceived to play a role in misfit perceptions as were, to a lesser degree, socio-economic factors and sacrifice-organisaiton. For nearly all of the dimensions, the red misfit line extends beyond the blue fit line indicating that these participants cited more factors affecting their misfit on the dimensions. However, this is not the case for fit-c and links-c, where the blue line extends beyond the red misfit line to show that these participants mentioned their links and fit with their communities slightly more frequently as leading to fit at work than misfit.

Figure 6.78 shows that for the individuals who felt that they more fitted than misfitted, job and group factors were important in making them perceive that they fitted at work. Organisational factors were cited equally as contributing to both fit and misfit at work and supervisors seemed to play a more negative than positive role for these individuals. PI and PVagain played a negligible role. The fit and misfit lines match fairly closely and fit only outweighs misfit to any extent on the PJ dimension. This suggests that job factors, and to a lesser extent the group (PG), are important in making these participants perceive that they fit more than misfit at work. The other codes were again infrequently used but sacrifice-organisation, which includes job perks, promotional opportunities and the autonomy offered in a job, was used overall for 7.1% of the coding

for these participants' causal map concepts. Personality was slightly more frequently used (7.1%) and in contrast to the misfits' radial diagram, was more often cited as a factor in people's fit perceptions than misfit perceptions.

The most notabe feature on the radial diagram for the perfect fits' (figure 6.79) is the large peak for PJ fit. According to these individuals, fit is to a large extent due to perceptions of fitting well with the job and was used to code 20.9% of the concepts on these participants' chains leading to the fit head. These individuals also cited group and organisational factors as important in relation to fit, but PV and PI were not relevant in causing either fit or misfit perceptions. Similar to the 'in-between' participants, sacrifice-organisation was used to code roughly 5% of the fit concepts on the 'perfect fits'' maps and links-community played a larger role in their fit perceptions than for any of the other groups.

The composite diagram for all of the participants (figures 6.80) is similar in shape to the perfect fits' diagrams but the levels of misfit and fit are more closely aligned. The only dimension on which fit is higher than misfit is on the PJ axis. Links-community, sacrifice-organisation and personality again play a role, although this is lesser than the PO, PG and PJ fit dimensions. Further, the amalgamated results for all of the participants do not suggest that all of the PE fit dimensions are equal as suggested in section 6.6 and illustrated by figure 6.75. PO, PG and PJ and, to a lesser extent, PS fit play a greater role in fit and misfit perceptions than either PI or PV fit but furthermore, so do other organisational factors included in the JE sacrifice-organisation dimension as well as individuals' fit and links to their community.

The next sections focus on each of the PE fit dimensions in more detail to ascertain whether there are qualitative as well as quantitative differences depending on whether they

are used in relation to fit or misfit. Following this, the job embeddedness, demographic and other codes are discussed to analyse their impact on fit and misfit at work.

6.7 Proposition 4 – The PE Fit Dimensions' Role in Fit and Misfit

6.7.1 P4a Person-Organisation Fit

PO fit was one of the most frequently used codes and the results presented in chapter 5 showed how organisational factors were at the root of fit and misfit perceptions as well as accounting for a high proportion of the concepts used in the causal chains. PO was more often used for coding misfit data and the radial diagram for the group who considered themselves to misfit (figure 6.77) suggests that a misfit between the person and the organisation is an important factor in making people feel that they misfit overall.

Participants spoke about management cliques, poor management practice including bullying, inconsistent and unfair decision making, imposed, petty and pointless rules and lack of communication. They also gave examples of organisational changes which included major change of a company being taken over but also the withdrawal of facilities, such as the bar and canteen being closed at one of the organisations.

Organisational values were mentioned in relation to misfit, for example participant 8 said that "the [organisation's] values are good but they're a bolt-on" and the "company values are what we'd like people to think we are." Participant 31 said "the corporate culture can make you feel like you don't fit when it's imposed and pointless." In talking about organisational factors that caused perceptions of misfit, individuals tended not to talk about a misalignment of values or goals but spoke about the imposition of bureaucratic structures, organisational policies and poor management by those at the top of the organisation.

When participants spoke about their fit perceptions, they frequently mentioned organisational values. Participant 3 spoke about her "values aligning with the organisation's" and in "believing passionately in what we do". Participant 14 said that "honesty, openness and respect being part of the organisation's values" made her fit in and that "these values are important to me as a person and in my role". Participant 25 similarly said "the company has the same values as me". The company ethos was mentioned by participants 19 and 22 who said "I think of the organisation like my family: I can slag off my sister but you can't". Participant 24, despite saying that she was a misfit at work, gave a large number of reasons why she fitted including saying "I love the ethics of [retailer] as a company". The lack of hierarchy and the company culture were mentioned by participant 4 as matching his preferences.

A match between individual and organisational values therefore leads to perceptions of fit for these participants whereas poor management practices and perceived unfair organisational policies lead to perceptions of misfit. Misfit and fit are therefore both caused by organisational factors but mis-management plays more of a role in shaping misfit perceptions than organisational values do in affecting fit.

6.7.2 P4b Person-Job Fit

PO fit was more often used to code concepts on misfit chains than fit chains but as noted in chapter 5, PJ was, conversely, more often used to code fit than misfit concepts. The radial diagram for the perfect fits (figure 6.79) illustrated that job factors play a particularly important role in shaping fit perceptions and this was also true for the group of participants as a whole. For those who misfit, the number of positive and negative job factors were evenly matched.

The majority of participants had positive things to say about their jobs. Examples include: the "work is interesting"(participant 3), "I like the job" and the "variety, doing different things" (participant 11), "I enjoy what I do ... providing a service" (participant 14), "I like the job" (participant 29), "I like being at work ... I enjoy it ... I'm learning new stuff" (participant 36) and "I can't imagine doing anything different" (participant 31). Participant 30 said "I'm extremely lucky with this job. To me it's an ideal job. I'm very committed" and participant 32 noted how her "personality fits the job." Others noted how their abilities met the demands of the job: "I love my job... developing new ideas and strategy are my strengths" (participant 24), "staff development is my forte" (participant 20), "[I] have to be very creative ... have to think outside the box. The job fits well" (participant 19).

In relation to misfit, participants said "I don't feel that I'm being used to the best of my abilities. I'm not interested in [these types of] jobs anymore" (participant 27), "I'm not used effectively" (participant 15), "no fulfilment, not needed" (participant 8), "[the] job wasn't what I thought it would be" (participant 2) and "I want to advance but [my disability] holds me back." (participant 9). There were very few people who spoke about their jobs in solely negative terms. Participants 1, 2, 8, 12 and 27 had nothing positive to say about their jobs and these were individuals who stated that they were misfits at work. Of these five participants, three are known to have since moved jobs.

The fit between the individual and his or her job is therefore important in relation to whether people perceive that they fit at work or not and in terms of the research proposition, person-job fit is related to both fit and misfit perceptions. The people who fitted well at work reported positive experiences at work whereas those who saw themselves as misfits reported an absence of positive job factors.

6.7.3 P4c Person-Group Fit

PG fit was, together with PO and PJ, one of the three most commonly used codes. PG was used as a code agreed by the 3 coders in 17.1% of the fit concepts and 19.2% of the misfit concepts across the total sample of maps (see table 6.2). For the tail concepts, PG was again somewhat more commonly used in relation to misfit (14.9%) than fit (11.2%) root causes. Those people who felt that they misfitted tended to cite group factors in relation to their misfit and conversely, those who perceived that they fitted well tended to cite groups in relation to their fit. As such, PG fit would appear to affect both fit and misfit.

In relation to fit, people spoke about their colleagues' positive qualities: "Brilliant people" (participant 3), "people are friendly and approachable" (participant 13), "they're nice people" (participant 29) but they also mentioned that they shared similar values. "Honesty" (participant 10), "loyalty" (participant 21) "respect" (participant 28) and "trust" (participants 7 and 14) were all mentioned as values that were shared by participants and their teams. Some participants spoke about their social skills in general terms such as "I get on well with people ... I feel comfortable around people" (participant 5), "I get on with everyone really well. I'm friends with everyone" (participant 7), "I like people and have time for them" (participant 14) and some noted their ability to change their behaviour to suit the situation: "I adapt" (participant 15) and "I can adapt to working with different people" (participant 16).

Social situations were also frequently mentioned in relation to fit. "We tend to get together in social situations" (participant 22), "we meet outside of work" (participant 23) and participant 33 said that in his team, they "do things socially – football and quizzes. Doing sport takes you completely out of the hierarchy. It breaks down barriers." Participant 37 talked about "joining in with social occasions, raffles, sponsoring people and

nights out" in relation to fit and participant 35, the youngest participant, said "it's just like school. I have really good friends here. We go out at lunchtimes."

In contrast, when speaking about what made her perceive that she misfitted at work, participant 38 said "in [my] previous role, colleagues were the people I went out with and on holiday with. There are no social activities to opt into here. I don't socialise outside of work but perhaps that's what I'm looking for." and participant 15 noted that "the social side to work isn't there anymore." Being different to other people also played a part in misfit perceptions with participant 3 saying about her colleagues "they socialise all the time. They're louder" and participant 1 said "[I] don't have much in common with people. [I] feel quite different to colleagues", citing "interpersonal differences, cultural differences and different backgrounds." Participant 26 said that "male, football type talk at the beginning of meetings and during fire drills" meant that she could "misfit with part of the group" and participant 27 also said that she was different to her co-workers, for example saying "I'm much more political than they are."

A lack of social opportunities and having different interests, views and values to others therefore led to perceptions of misfit. So too did a lack of social skills: "I find networking at conferences quite a challenge. I'm having to act against my natural tendencies and talk to people" caused misfit for participant 31. Participant 20 said that "people may think I'm a little aloof" and participant 8 said "relating to others is difficult. I was always a bit of a loner. I'm trying not to be a loner."

Individuals therefore talked about similar aspects of their fit with groups in relation to both fit and misfit, aspects such as their social skills, opportunities for socialising, sharing similar views and interests. When these are present, they lead to perceptions of fit but when lacking, perceptions of misfit ensue. An absence of PG fit therefore seems to be an important factor in contributing to misfit perceptions.

6.7.4 P4d Person-Vocation Fit

PV fit was infrequently used as a code when compared to PO, PJ and PG fit. For the total sample of concepts, it was used as an agreed code for 2.5% of the fit concepts and 1.2% of the misfit concepts (see table 6.2). When looking specifically at all of the maps' tail concepts, it was used for 3.6% of the root concepts leading to fit and 2.6% of the root concepts leading to misfit. As such, fit with a vocation does not play a major role in people's fit perceptions but where vocation is cited, it tends to be in relation to people's fit at work.

Participants tended to speak positively about their PV fit in relation to their current role, e.g. "I'm an accounting professional", their past experience, e.g. "my background is in youth work and in teaching" or their future career trajectory, e.g. "I want to be a director by the age of 40". It was also evident that PV fit related to people being able to do a role in line with their values, e.g. "it's a vocation to be in this line of work" and "I work in the public sector because I'm trying to help people". Few of the participants had a vocation, but where they did, it shaped their fit perceptions.

6.7.5 P4e Person-Supervisor Fit

Participants' fit with their supervisors featured fairly frequently on the causal maps, although less often than PO, PJ and PG fit. Table 6.2 shows that PS was used as a code for 8.7% of the causal map concepts. Overall, PS was used more often to code concepts on misfit (11.3%) than fit (7%) causal chains. Tables 6.3 and 6.5 show that people who perceived that they misfitted tended to mention their supervisors in relation to their misfit perceptions and those who fitted well more often mentioned supervisors in relation to their fit than their misfit.

Looking at what lies at the root of people's fit and misfit perceptions, the overall analysis of the 38 maps showed that PS was used as a code for 6.1% of the fit tail concepts and 6.7% of the misfit tail concepts. The people who perceived themselves to fit extremely well at work had a slightly higher proportion of misfit tails coded PS (6.4%) than fit tails (5.3%). The study's self-declared misfits also had very low numbers of PS coded tail concepts, of which 2.5% were related to fit and 4.8% related to misfit. Supervisors, it seems, have a more limited influence on people's fit and misfit perceptions than the organisation, group and the job.

One theme that recurred in the causal maps was new managers replacing well-liked 'old' managers which triggered (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) misfit perceptions. Participant 3 talked about a "new manager" joining the organisation after she had worked there for 10 years who "turned everything on its head" with his "new values" and "new style" and "tried to change [her] way of working", telling her: "if your figures don't improve, you'll be sacked". This "very painful time" led to participant 3 feeling "isolated and unengaged" and saying "I don't fit in" and "don't belong".

Participant 8 recounted how he was recruited by a director who "left four months later". The new manager imposed new targets and new ways of working, leading participant 8 feeling "no fulfilment and not needed". However, with the downturn in the economy, participant 8 noted that "the economy is keeping me here" and, "for the first time in my career, I don't fit at all".

Participants 1 and 30, both senior managers in their respective organisations, noted how a change of CEO had had led them to have feelings of misfitting at work. In addition to these four participants (i.e. 1, 3, 8 and 30) a further seven participants (6, 10, 12, 15, 20, 26 and 36) also specifically mentioned a change of manager as triggering misfit. The stories were surprisingly similar in that most had experienced a manager leaving, someone

new joining and experiencing misfit as a result of the changes that ensued. Participant 12's story was slightly different. He said, "the first four months people were really friendly. I felt welcomed. Then the bloke who gave me the job left. I got negative vibes after that". After a new manager came, this participant "learned to overcome the fear of looking for another job" and found a different position with another company. He said "if you've got bad vibes early on, the longer you stay, the more you'll resent working there". This individual was the only person involved in the study who was in the process of leaving his employer and his experiences were in line with ASA theory (Schneider, 1987b) which proposes that misfits leave. Participant 8 found a new job a few months later.

Although there were many instances of negative experiences with supervisors, many participants also recounted how they had been helped and supported by their managers. Participant 17 said "I've got a great boss" and participant 29, despite having experienced bullying at work said "[I] couldn't fault the manager. I've got no negative words to say about him." Participant 36 noted how "my manager and his manager have both been very supportive", helping her through a period of severe illness. Participant 32 had lost confidence due to illness and experiencing bullying in a previous job but said "my manager is wonderful. It's because of good management that I'm so confident now." Several people noted how they fitted with their supervisor because they were alike: "[my] manager and I are very similar and get on like a house on fire.... [we have a] common understanding of how to work" (participant 24), "my manager focuses on the things I also think are important" (participant 20) and "we're like birds of a feather in some respects" (participant 31).

A positive, supportive relationship with supervisors can lead to perceptions of fit in employees. However, where this relationship breaks down, which can be due to a supervisor leaving or a new supervisor joining the organisation, misfit can ensue. On the

PS fit dimension, fit and misfit appear to be opposites, with an absence or negative supervisory support leading to misfit and the presence of positive supervisory support leading to fit perceptions.

6.7.6 P4f Person-Individual Fit

PI fit was the most infrequently used of the PE fit codes, used for 1.4% of the concepts for the causal maps overall and 0.8% of the fit and 2.4% of the misfit concepts on all of the maps (see table 6.2). Similarly, PI featured for 0.9% of the fit tails and 2.6% of the misfit tails. It was therefore no more likely to be a root concept than being part of a causal chain. A person's fit with a specific individual seems far less likely to impact on fit and misfit perceptions than a person's fit with a group of co-workers (i.e. PG fit). However, where person-individual interactions are involved in fit perceptions, these are more likely to be linked to misfit. Participants 32 and 33 both mentioned having had a "personality clash" with another individual and, as participant 36 noted "one person can have a destructive effect". On the whole however, participants tended not to speak about individual colleagues. PI appears to play a very limited role in people's fit and misfit perceptions and plays a very minor role to the extent that it can not be said to cause either fit or misfit.

The radial diagrams and frequency tables have shown that some of the other codes used in the coding schedule were also cited in relation to both fit and misfit. Each of these factor's role in the participants' fit and misfit perceptions is discussed in the sections that follow, firstly, analysing the role that the facets of job embeddedness play.

6.8 Job Embeddedness

Job embeddedness is "*the idea of people's being 'situated or connected in a social web,' embeddedness has several key aspects: (1) the extent to which people have links to other people or activities, (2) the extent to which their jobs and communities fit other aspects in their life spaces," and (3) the ease with which links could be broken—what they would give up if they left their present settings*" (Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004, p. 712) . JE thus incorporates people's fit with the organisation in a broad sense but additionally looks beyond the organisation to consider how people's communities affect their decision to stay with or leave an organisation. How each of the aspects of JE: fit-community, links-community, links-organisation, sacrifice-community and sacrifice-organisation was spoken about by this study's participants is discussed in the following sections.

6.8.1 Fit-Community

The concepts coded 'fit-community' (Fit-C) were those where individuals spoke about the community in which they lived, its climate and facilities. The participants mentioned such positives as "Milton Keynes is a great place" (participant 24), "I love Milton Keynes" (participant 33), "I love the views from my house" (participant 20) and the leisure activities they were involved in such as "I go to the gym" (participant 24). They also mentioned their fit to their communities in negative ways such as "I hate the weather" (participant 25) and "I feel much less part of the community than I did in my previous role" (participant 38).

Fit-community was used as an agreed code for only 2.2% of the total number of concepts on the maps (see table 6.2) and was used slightly more in relation to people's fit than misfit. The tail concepts (table 5.3) showed that Fit-C was more often at the root of

participants' fit perceptions (3.2%) than being at the origin of the causal chains leading to misfit (1.5%).

Overall however, people's fit to their community appears to play a minor role in their fit and misfit perceptions.

6.8.2 Links-Community

Links-Community (Links-C) relates to the connections that individuals have with other people in the community, such as friends and family being nearby. The majority (26) of the study's participants mentioned having links to the community and twelve participants did not report any community links as impacting on their fit at work. Five of the twelve people who did not make any reference to their links to the community were people classing themselves as misfits.

Links-C was the second most commonly used of the job embeddedness codes and was used across the piece for 6.5% of the fit concepts and 4.1% of the misfit concepts (see table 6.2). Participants cited links to their communities in 8.1% of the root causes of fit and 4.2% of the misfit tail concepts (table 5.3). Those participants who perceived that they fitted well at work had the highest proportion of links-C concepts on their maps (see table 6.4).

As noted in chapter 5, Links-C was often a 'double' concept on the participants' maps (see section 5.16). The links to their community that the participants spoke about were overwhelmingly positive, with children, spouses, parents, brothers, sisters and grandchildren all being mentioned. Participant 3 spoke about her husband and children, being "close to family" was important for participant 5 and participant 16 said that having her "close knit family" lived nearby. Being close to significant others allowed people to maintain their "social networks" (participant 24) and "support networks" (participant 25)

as well as getting involved in charity work (participants 26 and 28). This enabled participants to maintain their "work-life balance" (participants 3 and 16) although people spoke of their families and other links in the positive, they often linked this to other factors such as financial responsibility and having to try and balance the needs of their families with their working lives.

People's links with their community, and in particular being close to family members, seems to be relevant to them when they consider whether they fit or misfit at work. This appears to be a need in some individuals which is met by the organisation and thus it could be seen as complementary PO fit. However, as noted in chapter 3, PO fit tends to be conceptualised and measured in supplementary terms, often assessing the similarity of organisational and individual values.

6.8.3 Links-Organisation

Links-organisation (Links-O) covers the length of time that an individual has worked in a position, organisation or industry and the number of links with co-workers that have been made. This meant that it overlapped with the 'tenure' code but it also with the person-group fit code. As a consequence, Links-O was rarely used on its own and the coders tended to combine it with tenure or PG. Typically, Links-O was used for statements such as "I've been with [the company] for 20 years", "I'm fairly new to the company", "I joined one year ago" and "I have worked with the guys [in the company] for years". These tended to be statements of fact rather than subjective opinions, feelings or experiences that the participants had experienced.

Links-O was an agreed code for 2.7% of the causal map concepts (table 6.2) and was used roughly for the same proportions of fit (2.9%) and misfit (2.5%) concepts, as such seeming to affect each equally.

Although links-O appears not to have a dramatically greater effect on participants' fit perceptions than on their misfit perceptions, it could be expected that people who misfit would report working at the organisation for a short time (i.e. they could be new to the organisation and be in the process of realising that they misfit) whereas the perfect fits may be well established and socialised in the organisation (and have been employed for longer). However, those who considered themselves to misfit had concepts on their maps such as "I have been here for three years and I've gone nowhere", "I joined one year ago", "I've been at [this company] for 20 years" and "8 years at [this organisation]". The Links-O coded concepts for participants who considered themselves to fit well included: "I joined the company in February [9 months earlier]", "I've been here nearly 14 years", "I've been at [this organisation] just under two years" and "I came to this job 10 years ago". The length of time that individuals have worked for an organisation or the number of people that they knew or worked with did not seem to differ greatly between those people who fit and those who do not fit.

Not every participant mentioned the length of time that they had worked for their employer but from the demographic data that individuals provided on the post-interview questionnaire, the eight participants who perceived themselves to misfit had been in their jobs for between 6 months and 20 years. Three of these participants had been in their job for 6 years. For the people considering themselves to fit well at work, the range was between 9 months and 27 years. Five of these participants had been in their job for 2 years.

6.8.4 Sacrifice Community

Sacrifice-Community (Sacr-C) looks at the loss that people would experience if they left their community, how safe their neighbourhood is and how much they are

respected in their community. Sacr-C was the least frequently used of the job embeddedness codes and in total, this code was only used 6 times as a code agreed by the coding team (see table 6.2): 3 times in relation to fit and 3 times to code misfit concepts. Sacrifice-community thus seems to have negligible impact on people's fit or misfit perceptions.

6.8.5 Sacrifice Organisation

Sacrifice-Organisation (Sacr-O) is a far broader dimension than sacrifice-community. It covers not only the sacrifice that a person feels that they would make if s/he were to leave the organisation, but it also covers the benefits, perks and promotion prospects that are offered by the employer. Sacr-O was slightly more often used as a code than Links-C which together were the two most frequently used JE codes. Sacr-O and was used for 6.8% of all fit concepts and 4.3% of misfit concepts, being used for 5.8% of concepts overall (table 6.2). Sacr-O generally featured more in relation to fit than misfit across the analyses of the maps overall, the sub-groups and the tail concepts, but the misfits mentioned aspects relating to sacr-O least frequently.

Accordingly, it would appear that the sacrifice-organisation dimension is more related to fit than misfit. The eight misfit participants mentioned things like: "working in [this organisation] is fairly secure" and "financial security" (participant 26), "the economy is keeping me here" and "I'm trapped" (participant 8), "I feel like I'm stagnating and being neglected" (participant 27) and "I need the income" (participant 1). The sixteen people who perceived themselves to fit well mentioned: "Ambition" (participant 11), "the scope to develop [my] role" (participant 14), "They give me support for how I can develop further" (participant 23), "I take the fit for granted. Having to rebuild fit with someone else would be scary...How would I make the move to another employer?" (participant 22), "they

allow you to move on. It's quite progressive here" (participant 9), "the benefits that the staff receive mean that they're happy to abide by the company ethos" (participant 21) and "praise and recognition is more important to me than money" (participant 37).

From this sample of quotes and the numbers of times Sacr-O was used in coding the maps, it seems that Sacr-O factors are not only more salient to fit perceptions than misfit, but also qualitatively different. The misfits' Sacr-O coded concepts are to do with being bound to the organisation through necessity whereas the perfect fits' concepts are developmental and forward looking. Fit perceptions ensue when individuals perceive that they can develop and move forward whereas misfit perceptions ensue when individuals perceive that they are trapped.

In conclusion, the job embeddedness dimension overall seem to be more strongly linked to fit than misfit and this is perhaps not altogether surprising considering that "*job embeddedness is theorized to be a key mediating construct between specific on-the-job and off- the-job factors and employee retention. It represents the accumulated psychological and other reasons why an employee would stay on a job*" (Holtom, Mitchell, & Lee, 2006, p. 320). The theory seems to hold in that JE factors are related to people feeling that they fit well at work. However, the JE dimensions are less frequently mentioned (whether framed positively or negatively) in relation to misfit. Overall, JE dimensions are used for 21.4% of the participants' fit concepts but only for 12.6% of misfit concepts. This could suggest that people's fit and links to their community and organisation, and the perceived sacrifice of leaving both, could be more relevant to how people fit in organisations than their experiences of misfit.

6.9 Demographic Factors

Demographic codes were added to the coding schedule, namely age, tenure, gender, race, socio-economic background, religion and education, when during the interviewing and causal mapping process it was realised that these were being mentioned by participants. Taken together, these codes were used for 3.6% of the overall coding (table 6.2). The only codes which were used for more than 1% of the coding were tenure and socio. As discussed in section 6.8.3, tenure does not have significant bearing on how well people perceived that they fitted at work.

'Socio' was used for only 1.4% of the agreed coding (table 6.2) but is nevertheless of interest. Socio-economic is defined as "relating to social status and economic position" (The Concise Oxford Dictionary, 1982, p. 1006) and was used to code items such as "I was brought up in a housing co-operative", "I emulated friends who were wealthy", "my mother was a nurse" and "parents". These items do not conform to the definition: individuals were not speaking about their social status and economic position but were rather referring back to their upbringing and the impact that this had in how they fitted in at work. Socio-economic factors were therefore not referred to, but people's upbringing, backgrounds and childhoods were. This analysis suggests that individuals' fit and misfit perceptions are unrelated to demographic factors, thus distinguishing between the surface-level effects of being demographically similar (i.e. in terms of age, race, tenure, education etc.) and employees' perceptions of fit. This is in line with Elfenbein and O'Reilly's (2007) findings that demographic characteristics do not predict fit.

As noted in section 5.20, the coding team added the code 'culture' (cult) to the coding schedule to capture individuals' cultural backgrounds. Combining the items coded 'socio' with those coded 'cult' shows that 2.8% of the items were coded as such overall (see table 6.2) but for 4% of the misfit concepts. People mentioned how their upbringing

in different cultures (which included different countries, areas of the UK and social groups), their parents, elders and their position in the family, affected their values and consequently their fit and misfit.

Superficial demographic factors do not affect individuals' fit perceptions but what is apparent from this analysis is that people contextualise their fit. Fit is temporal in that it changes over time and is affected by changes in the individual and the environment (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006). This was shown for example by a change of supervisor having a definite effect on a number of the individuals who partook in this study. But individuals also contextualise their fit more broadly: they refer back to their upbringing and incidents such as bullying at school whilst at the same time looking to the future to assess how their current position fits with their career aspirations.

6.10 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the four research propositions in order to assess how fit and misfit are similar and in what ways they differ. The analyses showed that proposition 1 (that each causal chain would comprise concepts of one dimension), was not upheld for any of the groups of participants studied. Many chains do consist of concepts where the majority are similar but there are also large numbers of chains where 50% or more of the concepts are different. This pattern was similar across the groups: the people who perceived that they fitted well did not have more similar or differently constituted chains than people who perceived that they misfitted. This was further complicated by chains linking into each other. Although the chains leading to fit and misfit were individually analysed, starting with each root concept and tracing this through to the head concept, this did not take into account those instances where one or more chains linked together. PE fit dimensions may therefore be theoretically discreet but people give accounts of how their

fit or misfit with one dimension impacts or affects their fit or misfit with another dimension often linking various facets of their work as well as drawing on their lives outside of the workplace.

Proposition 2, that positively phrased concepts would connect to the fit head and negatively phrased concepts to the misfit head (with neutral concepts being evenly spread between both), was largely true. In general, participants did give negative examples in relation to misfit and cited positive factors in relation to fit but the majority of the individuals' maps included negative concepts in their fit maps and positive concepts in their misfit maps. Individuals often used negative examples to contextualise their fit, showing how overcoming a difficult situation had improved their fit at work. Conversely, others gave examples of how despite there being positive aspects of their work, they nevertheless perceived that they misfitted. Individuals therefore tended to give balanced accounts of the pros and cons and where they fitted, the positives outweighed the negatives and for those who misfitted, the negatives outweighed the positives.

In the analyses for proposition 3, that fit and misfit are multidimensional, radial diagrams were used which showed that each individual's fit and misfit *were* caused by multiple dimensions but that three of the PE fit dimensions, PO, PJ and PG, dominated. People's fit with their supervisors (PS fit) was also relevant to individuals but PI and PV fit were not.

Each of these PE fit dimensions was more closely scrutinised in relation to research proposition 4 which put forward that fit and misfit would be caused by the same dimensions. It was shown that although PO, PJ, PG and PS factors affected both fit and misfit perceptions, organisational and group factors had a strong impact on misfit perceptions whereas the fit between the person and their job was seen to be particularly important in causing strong fit perceptions.

Additionally, the radial diagrams illustrated that factors apart from the PE fit dimensions may play a role in people's fit perceptions, as captured by the JE dimensions sacrifice-organisation and links-community. In particular, people's links to their families in combination with their cultural background and upbringing suggest that people think more broadly than the organisational context when considering what makes them fit or misfit at work.

Chapter 7 considers these analyses in relation to the literature (chapter 3) to discuss the study's findings. Further, the study's limitations, strengths and contributions are discussed as are future avenues for research and the implications that the findings have for management practice.

Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The study reported in this thesis explored the relationship between organisational fit and misfit. Several factors drove this research. First, there are few studies of misfit and very little is known about the subject. Second, most empirical studies of organisational fit have been coy about how the 'negative' ends of their measurement tools are calibrated. In other words, there is a lack of clarity about reverse of high levels of fit. Is it low levels of fit, no fit, or misfit? Third, and linked to the second point, although in conceptual pieces (e.g. Chatman, 1989; Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007) the concepts of 'fit' and 'misfit' are used freely in the narrative, we know little about how they relate to each other, or whether they are related at all. Fourth, as misfit research is in its infancy, it is important to conduct some exploratory empirical work to find out how employees' conceptualise misfit in order to avoid many of the definitional problems plaguing the organisational fit literature (Harrison, 2007).

To respond to these motivations, the research questions sought to explore the similarities and differences between fit and misfit, and to explore how, and if, fit and misfit relate to each other. The study adopted an idiographic approach to data collection that allowed people to describe their fit and misfit in their own terms using causal maps to surface and make explicit their thought processes (Hodgkinson & Maule, 2002). Data analysis was conducted in a nomothetic manner with a coding structure from extant dimensions of fit applied to the causal maps. This process surfaced broad similarities and differences between fit and misfit and provided some insight into the fundamental characteristics of the two constructs. The remainder of this chapter reviews these findings and discusses the impact of them on the organisational fit and misfit literatures.

7.2 The Similarities between Fit and Misfit

A major objective for this study was to start to identify by means of an exploratory study how people's experiences of fit and misfit differed and in what ways they shared similarities. In chapter 3 it was noted that misfit is generally assumed to be a lack or absence of fit (see section 3.7). Accordingly, fit and misfit are theoretically opposites: when one is present, the other is absent. This study sought to explicate whether similar factors, or the lack thereof, explained individuals' fit and misfit perceptions.

In chapter 5 it was found that the majority of the participants' causal map concepts could be coded using the PE fit dimensions (see table 5.2). This was confirmed in chapter 6 where it was shown that 69.5% of the causal map concepts overall, 67.7% of the concepts on the fit chains and 72.2% of the misfit concepts were coded with the PE fit dimensions (see table 6.2). This broad analysis showed that fit and misfit were similarly perceived to result primarily from interactions with the organisation, job and groups of co-workers. Further, the majority of tail concepts on individuals' causal maps were also coded with the PE fit dimensions (see table 5.3), with 58.4% of the root causes of fit and 66% of the misfit tails being coded with PE fit codes. The PO, PJ and PG codes again featured most frequently as codes for the root causes of both fit and misfit. The PI and PV fit codes were equally infrequently used for the fit and misfit concepts and although PS fit was more often referred to, people's relationship with their supervisor was also of lesser importance than PO, PG and PJ fit. One of the similarities between individuals' fit and misfit perceptions is thus that in broad terms, they are explained by the PE fit dimensions.

This finding is of particular interest as it relates to the multi-dimensional fit theories outlined in section 3.6. Jansen and Kristof-Brown (2006) theorised that PE fit is the sum of PV + PJ + PO + PG + PP (where PP fit is person-person fit, or dyadic fit) but the findings from this study suggests that dyadic fit (PI and PS fit) and PV fit may play a lesser

role in individuals' fit and misfit perceptions. It could therefore be the case that PO, PJ and PG fit are the core fit dimensions which have the greatest influence on whether a person fits or misfits with the PV, PI and PS dimensions playing a lesser role. However, it may also be the case that these results are explained by PV, PI and PS fit being less salient than the PO, PJ, PG fit dimensions. For example, because the participants were all employed and not in the process of seeking work, PV fit may not have been salient to their fit perceptions (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006).

A further similarity was that demographic factors were infrequently cited, either in relation to fit or misfit perceptions. This suggests that neither fit nor misfit results from people being similar or different in race, age, gender, religion, education or socio-economic background. This finding is in line with both Elfenbein and O'Reilly (2007) and Jackson and Chung's (2008) work (see section 3.7) suggesting that a person's fit or misfit in an organisation is not due to people being similar or dissimilar at a superficial level but rather that whether one fits or not is a deeper, psychological construct.

The causal maps shared another commonality in that the majority of participants gave examples of factors which led them both to fit and to misfit at work, although one area tended to dominate. This finding is of interest because fit and misfit tend, in the literature, to be considered in absolute terms. People's values, skills, knowledge, abilities and personality are theorised to either match those of the organisation or to meet a need and if they do not, then the individual misfits (Harrison, 2007). The experiences of the individuals who participated in this research did not bear this out, showing instead that it is possible to perceive misfit with some areas of the environment yet to strongly fit in other areas. This finding relates to the discussion of the methods of measurement used in PE fit research (section 3.4) and confirms Edwards' (2002) and Harrison's (2007) concerns that combining various fit measurements into an overall fit score may give misleading results.

Collapsing fit scores may therefore be problematic but so too are studies reporting on only one or two dimensions of fit (see section 3.5). In focusing only on PJ fit for example, an individual may appear to fit well but such a study may inadvertently miss that the individual misfits on the PO and PG fit dimensions for example.

Conversely, it is also not necessarily the case that misfitting in one area of work will lead to perceptions of misfit. The individuals who took part in this study who perceived that they fitted well at work nevertheless cited examples of factors causing them to misfit, as shown in the tree diagrams in section 6.4.6. However, participants who fitted well tended to give few examples of misfit and on their causal maps therefore, the positive factors outweighed the negatives whilst the opposite was true for those participants who misfitted.

The fit tree maps for the individuals who fitted well at work (see section 6.4.5) further showed that individuals contextualise their fit and that having had a previous negative experience helped them to appreciate that they fitted well in their current jobs. This finding supports Schneider's (1987b) theory that individuals actively seek to fit in and will change jobs when they perceive that they misfit but also reinforces that fit and misfit are temporal and dynamic (Seikiguchi, 2004; Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Ostroff & Schulte, 2007; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). That fit perceptions can change over time was also highlighted in section 6.7.5, where it was shown that specific events, particularly a change of manager, caused participants to re-assess their fit with the organisation. This finding lends credence to Edwards and Billsberry (2010) and Wheeler et al (2005) who suggested that environmental triggers can cause people to move from a state of fitting in to misfitting at work.

A further commonality across the participants' maps was that the causal chains leading to fit and misfit were broadly similar in comprising of more than one code. Table

6.1 and figure 6.74 showed that there was a wide variety in how causal chains were constituted. There were causal chains consisting of one fit dimension but there were also chains where a number of different organisational and home-life factors combined. This was similar for both the chains leading to fit and misfit and further, the pattern was similar for the misfits', inbetweens' and perfect fits' causal chains. This suggests that there may be more interplay between the dimensions of fit than is suggested by the literature which tends to posit that different dimensions of fit are "relatively independent" (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007, p. 49). However, the findings lend support to Kristof-Brown and Jansen's (2007) theory that 'spillover' and 'spirals' may operate to affect individuals' fit perceptions. Spillover is posited to occur where one dimension of fit is particularly salient and strong, for example PJ fit, and this has a compensating influence on the other, less salient, fit dimensions, so that these are bolstered. Kristof-Brown and Jansen (2007) propose that spiralling occurs where individuals get into a vicious or virtuous cycle, so that once an individual perceives that he misfits, he will selectively perceive other environmental factors to support this view. It therefore appears from the causal maps that the fit dimensions are not wholly independent and that people note that different aspects of work and family life inter-link and affect each other. Whether this is due to spillover or spiralling effects is beyond the scope of this study and consequently no clear conclusions can be drawn, but what is apparent is that the participants in this study did not think about each of the fit dimensions in isolation.

7.3 The Differences between Fit and Misfit

Some broad similarities were found between fit and misfit perceptions and additionally, some commonalities between all of the participants' causal maps were found,

as shown in the section above. There were however differences between fit and misfit which were identified through the analyses detailed in chapter 6.

It was noted above that the PE fit dimensions dominated in coding the causal chains leading to both fit and misfit. The analysis in chapter 6 showed that there were however differences between the PE fit dimensions as each of these were not equally cited in relation to fit and misfit. For example, PJ fit was used to code over a quarter (25.9%) of the concepts on the causal chains leading to fit whereas PO fit was most frequently used (19.7%) to code the concepts on misfit chains (see table 6.2). The radial diagrams illustrated that PJ fit was particularly important as a factor for those people who considered themselves to fit well at work (see figure 6.79) whereas the radial diagram for the participants who considered themselves to misfit illustrated that organisational and group factors were of particular importance in their perceptions. Therefore, although organisational, job and group factors were frequently cited in relation to both fit and misfit, positive job factors appeared important in determining a person's fit at work whereas negative organisational and group factors were often cited by participants as causing misfit perceptions.

There was also a qualitative difference in the way that participants spoke about PO fit. Poor organisational practices, mismanagement and imposed, petty bureaucracy were shown to cause strong perceptions of misfit. In contrast, alignment and subscription to the organisation's values lead to perceptions of fit, but at lower levels. A misfit with the organisation appeared to produce a more pronounced negative effect than did fit with the organisational values.

In section 3.5.1, it was shown that PO fit tends to be conceptualised as values congruence, where individuals are said to fit if their values match the espoused organisational values or the aggregate values of the organisation's employees (Chatman,

1989). The findings from this study suggest that people who misfit do not necessarily hold different values but rather that they did not fit with the organisations' culture and management practices. Participants in Kristof-Brown, Jansen and Colbert's study (see section 3.5.5) used Flanagan's (1954) critical incident technique to give examples of their own experiences of poor PO fit and once coded, the most common description was summarised as "Your company does not seem to treat its employees very well, and you frequently find yourself disagreeing with your company's management practices" whereas high PO fit was summarised as: "The company you work for treats its employees well. In addition, the company's culture supports your personal values" (Kristof-Brown et al, 2002, p. 987). There are similarities between the ways in which this study's and Kristof-Brown et al's (2002) participants described PO fit and misfit, suggesting that focusing only on values when assessing PO fit may be too limited a view.

A further difference between fit and misfit was found when analysing the number of times that the job embeddedness codes had been used for the causal map concepts. The radial diagrams (figures 6.77 to 6.80) and the accompanying tables (tables 6.2 to 6.5) showed that those people who perceived themselves to fit well at work more often cited JE dimensions, particularly links to their communities, than did the people who considered themselves to misfit. This is in keeping with the job embeddedness literature which posits that the dimensions of JE combine to predict employee retention (Holtom et al, 2006). However, factors outside of work are beyond the boundaries of PE fit, despite calls in the literature to consider these (see Edwards & Rothbard, 1999; Kristof-Brown et al, 2005). As is noted in section 7.4 below, considering the complementary fit between the person and the organisation and so taking into account the way in which individuals' needs are met by the workplace, may result in a more comprehensive measure of PO fit than solely assessing the similarity of the individual's and organisation's values.

A further fundamental difference between fit and misfit perceptions was identified through the analyses of the participants' tree maps. In analysing the positive versus negative concepts on these maps it was found that the participants, whether they perceived themselves to fit or misfit at work, tended to speak about misfit perceptions in the negative whereas fit concepts were positively phrased. This supports the view that misfit is a negative experience (e.g. Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2005) and potentially stressful to individuals (see Le Fevre et al, 2003; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Edwards, 2008). There was also evidence to suggest that individuals who misfit leave (Schneider, 1987b) as three of the participants who stated that they misfitted at work were known to have subsequently changed jobs. Schneider (1987b) suggested that employing people who misfit may have positive organisational outcomes as it prevents the organisation from becoming unduly 'ingrown' but this study's findings suggest that individuals recruited specifically because they do not fit in may find it a stressful experience.

7.4 To what Extent do the Extant Terms explain Fit and Misfit?

The discussion of the similarities and differences between fit and misfit have highlighted that the measures used in PE fit research which were used in this study's coding schedule (appendix 6) captured what the participants spoke about to a large extent, overall being used to code 69.5% of the causal map concepts (see table 6.2). However, PO, PJ, PG, PV, PS and PI fit were shown not to play equal roles in fit and misfit. PO, PJ and PG appeared far more frequently on people's causal maps than the other PE codes suggesting that the fit, or lack of fit, with the organisation, job and groups of co-workers has a greater influence than the vocation, supervisor and other individuals.

Fit perceptions arise from a high fit to the job (and, for some individuals, to their vocation) coupled with having the social skills to fit with the group and opportunities for

social interaction with like-minded colleagues. A match between the individual's and organisation's values is also important to fit perceptions and a positive, supportive relationship with supervisors is cited by many participants but is apparently less important than strong PJ and PG fit. Misfit is also multi-dimensional but is predominantly centred on a misfit with the organisation and the group with job factors and misfit with the supervisor playing a lesser role.

However, despite the PE dimensions mapping onto the participants' causal map concepts well, some areas for refinement were identified. The narrow focus of the PO fit dimension on the congruence between individual and organisational values and personality excludes management style and culture which both this study and research by Kristof-Brown et al (2002) found to be salient, particularly to people's experiences of misfit. Further, individuals noted how they fitted at work because their career ambitions and needs for development were met by the organisation. Such concepts on individuals' maps were coded with the JE dimension 'sacrifice-organisation' (see section 6.8.5) because the PO fit dimension did not encompass organisational needs-supply fit. Incorporating complementary PO fit into PE fit studies may ensure that people's fit with the organisation is more comprehensively assessed. However, as noted in section 6.8.5, if people fit with the organisation based solely on it meeting their financial needs rather than their developmental needs, feelings of misfit and being trapped could ensue.

The participants also stated that the connections and obligations they had to others in their communities affected their fit at work, with 26 out of the 38 participants mentioning their families and other social networks. The participants were concerned with maintaining a level of work-life balance that was appropriate or desirable to their individual circumstances. Although such concepts were coded with the JE links-community dimension, it could equally be argued that complementary PO fit could

encompass individuals' work-life balance needs. People seem to fit and stay in organisations not only because they have similar values and personalities to others but also because the organisation provides the individual with the rewards, opportunities for development and the ability to meet the needs of significant others in their families or communities.

The radial diagrams and accompanying tables in section 6.6 showed that personality had been added to the coding schedule and had been used to code 8.4% of the fit concepts and 7.8% of the misfit concepts on the causal maps (see table 6.2). In chapter 5 (section 5.20) the addition of 'personality' as a code was discussed, noting that personality was recognised as highly important in PE fit research. Personality has been frequently used to assess the fit between individuals and the aggregate personality in vocations (e.g. Holland, 1985; Satterwhite et al, 2009), groups (e.g. Barsade et al, 2000; Kristof-Brown, Barrick & Stevens, 2005) and organisations (e.g. Schneider et al, 1998) and was specifically referred to on the coding schedule for all of the PE fit dimensions apart from PG fit, where it was implied.

The participants spoke about having personality traits which were similar to others' at work or how their personality complemented the needs of the job or group. Such concepts were coded with the appropriate PE fit code. However, they further spoke about their personalities in more general terms (see section 5.20) which suggested that they considered themselves to have traits which pre-disposed them to fit or misfit at work. For example, being adaptable, positive and easy going were said by some participants to explain why they fitted at work. Being shy, negative and sensitive were mentioned as explaining individuals' misfit as were difficulties in relating to others and establishing social relationships. Bowers (1973) noted that there were instances where just either the situation or an individual's traits affected behaviour rather than an interaction between the

two, which seems to be borne out by these findings. It is therefore proposed that although personality is already incorporated in the PE fit measures, it could be considered as an antecedent to fit and misfit. For example, it may be the case that certain personality traits predispose individuals to perceive that they either fit or misfit at work.

Criticism has been levelled at PE fit research for being too broadly conceptualised and being too all encompassing (see Harrison, 2007) but this study's findings suggest that individuals experience fit and misfit in broad terms, not only encompassing those aspects of the organisational environment captured by the PE fit dimensions but additionally incorporating factors from their experiences and lives outside of the organisation. In chapter 5 the codes which had been added to the coding schedule were discussed and as well as personality; culture, experience and health were added to the schedule. Participants were found to draw on experiences from their childhood and upbringing to contextualise how and why they fitted or misfitted at work as illustrated by the examples they gave of their cultural backgrounds. They drew on their experience in previous jobs, comparing past employment with their current post as a benchmark against which to assess fit. DeRue and Morgeson (2007) also found that fit perceptions were affected by individuals' experience over time and the importance of the temporal or dynamic nature of fit has been advocated as an important area for future research (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). The findings from this study suggest that fit assessments are not only affected by the stage of employment that the individual has reached but also by their wider life experience and the future that they envisage for themselves.

7.5 Is Misfit the Polar Opposite to Fit?

The question of whether fit and misfit are two opposite ends of a spectrum relates back to the way in which fit has been measured in many fit studies. The differing ways of

assessing PE fit were outlined in section 3.5 and were shown to include objective or 'actual' measures of fit as well as subjective and perceived measures. Whether taking objective or subjective measures, supplementary fit is said to exist where P=E and complementary fit exists where an individual's abilities match an organisational demand or where an individual's needs are matched by organisational supplies. This suggests that an individual and organisation can fully fit (where there is exact correspondence between P and E), partially fit (for example where the person and organisation share some similar values or an individual brings some of the skills required by the organisation) or misfit, where there is no match between P and E. This suggests that there is a scale of fit to misfit, where the two states are opposites. As people's skills and abilities increase, their fit may increase or, if their skills exceed what is required by the organisation, they may slide along the scale towards misfit.

An alternative possibility would be that fit and misfit are not two ends of a scale but that they are categorical variables. If this were the case, individuals would not move along a scale of fit to misfit (or vice versa) but would be categorised as either a fit or a misfit in their particular organisational environment. There is some evidence from this study to suggest that either could be the case. Participants were asked to categorise themselves on a fit-to-misfit scale and out of the 38 participants, 3 considered themselves to misfit and 16 gave themselves the maximum fit score. One of the remaining 19 participants said that she neither fitted nor misfitted, 5 said that they more misfitted than fitted at work and 13 considered themselves to more-fit-than-misfit at work. Given that these participants had had time to fully consider how and why they fitted or misfitted at work, were employed adults and under no pressure to place themselves at any particular point on the continuum, it would appear that they perceived it possible to partially fit or misfit.

Each of the PE fit dimensions was analysed in depth in section 6.7 to assess whether there were qualitative differences between fit and misfit perception with a view to understanding whether similar factors were involved in both fit and misfit perceptions. The qualitative difference between PO fit and misfit was discussed in section 7.3 above and in section 6.7.1 and showed that participants who fitted at work cited examples of having values which were similar to the organisation's values. However, individuals who misfitted did not say that they had different values; rather they gave examples of poor management practice and unwarranted organisational change. An absence of similar organisational values therefore did not signal PO misfit and therefore using a values congruence scale may not show fit and misfit at its extremes.

The qualitative analysis of PJ fit however found that individuals who fitted well tended to speak about their jobs in positive terms and noted how their abilities met the demands of the job and fulfilled their needs. People who misfitted experienced the opposite: saying that their abilities were not used effectively in the job and that they did not feel needed. Participants' experiences of PG fit and misfit seemed to be similarly opposed and they spoke about their social skills, opportunities for socialising and being similar to others in the group when they fitted and an absence of these when they misfitted. For PS fit it was found that whereas positive, supportive supervision lead to fit perceptions, the absence of these and changes in management lead to relatively stronger misfit perceptions. Person-vocation fit was not often referred to by participants but where it was, it tended to be in the positive and more often cited as a cause of fit. PI fit was also infrequently mentioned but where it was, it tended to be in relation to misfit.

An absence of PJ, PG or PS fit therefore appears to lead to misfit perceptions, suggesting that for these dimensions, fit and misfit are polar opposites. For PO fit however, fit and misfit are attributed to different factors and an absence of fit does not

appear to necessarily lead to misfit. PV and PI fit were so infrequently mentioned that it is difficult to assess whether an absence of fit on either of these dimensions leads to misfit perceptions. The limited data available suggests that PV fit tends to be more frequently cited in relation to fit whereas the examples given of PI fit tended to be negative and linked to misfit perceptions.

However, one of the reasons that this research question was considered was because Wheeler et al (2005; 2007) suggested that misfit is triggered by specific incidents. Research which proposes that people consider their fit at particular points in time (such as at key employment stages such as recruitment and selection (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006) or when trigger events occur) further suggests that people do not slowly meander from misfit to fit as they gain attributes or as the organisation changes around them, but rather suggests that people step from one state to another. There was evidence in this study to suggest that this was the case.

Person-supervisor fit was less frequently mentioned than PO, PJ and PG fit but several examples were cited by participants of supervisors leaving or changing which prompted them to reassess their fit and move from perceived fit to perceived misfit (see section 6.7.5). Broader organisational changes and health issues (see section 5.20) were also said by participants to have triggered a change in their fit perceptions. These individuals noted how they had perceived themselves to fit well, but the change that they experienced prompted them to move from a state of fitting to misfitting. The reverse was also true, for example participant 36 had considered herself to misfit until a serious illness triggered her to fit (see section 5.20). This suggests that a trigger event may lead to spillover and spirals (Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007), causing individuals to perceive misfit where they previously considered themselves to fit. This may explain why the radial diagram for the people who considered themselves to misfit (figure 6.77) showed the red

misfit line to extend beyond the blue fit line: Rather than considering themselves to misfit with only one aspect of work, for those participants who misfitted, their misfit perceptions outweighed their fit perceptions. Similarly, the radial diagram for the 'perfect fits' shows that they perceived themselves to fit with all of the dimensions.

It could be the case that certain personality traits pre-dispose people to spiral into misfit as there was evidence that whilst some participants experienced triggers which led to misfit, others spoke about temporary misfit but that they had been able to adapt to the changed circumstances to fit in again. Due to the small scale of this study, it is not possible to state with any certainty whether fit and misfit are polar opposites or categorical states, but there is support for Wheeler et al's (2005; 2007) proposition that it is possible for misfit perceptions to be triggered and that changes in management may precipitate this.

7.6 Limitations of the Research

This research has several limitations which have been recognised. The first of these is the small scale of the study. Only 38 people took part in the research and their experiences may not reflect how fit and misfit are generally experienced by employees. All who took part volunteered to be interviewed and they were therefore not a random sample and may have had particular axes to grind. The research took place in the UK thereby potentially capturing British working practices which may differ in other countries. For these reasons, the findings are not generalisable, giving directions for further research rather than firm conclusions in their own right.

There were also limitations in the methods used. As was discussed in chapter 4, using idiographic causal mapping techniques gives rich data about an individual's experience of fitting and misfitting at work. However, amalgamating and comparing sets of idiographic maps is recognised to be difficult (Markóczy & Goldberg, 1995). The

participants' data were 'messy', making it necessary to analyse the data in a series of steps and the sheer number of concepts that the causal maps contained made it necessary to use frequency tables to indicate which areas were potentially of interest. By imposing the structure of the coding schedule on to the data and using frequency tables to identify differences between groups of participants, it is likely that some of the subtle differences in individuals' perceptions may have been overlooked. Eden and Ackermann (1998) cautioned that although the same words may be used by people, different meaning may be attached to them. One potential limitation is therefore that the coders may have attached meaning to the words used in the causal map concepts which were different to the meaning intended by the participants.

The way in which the data were coded also proved to be a limitation, particularly because the coders frequently used multiple codes for concepts. The data description in chapter 5 used the full set of codes assigned by the coders, thus inflating the totals on chapter 5's frequency tables, as noted in section 5.11. These data were nevertheless useful in that all of the codes which had been used were shown and those which had been added to the coding schedule were explored, showing some of the more interesting variations in fit and misfit perceptions. This limitation was overcome in chapter 6 where the codes which had been agreed by the coding team were used.

7.7 Strengths of the Research

Despite its limitations, this study has several strengths. The first of these is that it specifically addresses both fit and misfit in response to a recognition within the PE fit literature that misfit is little understood (Billsberry et al, 2006; Wheeler et al, 2007; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). Piasentin and Chapman (2007, p. 341) pointed out that "knowledge of how employees experience fit is incomplete" and this research sought to

explore employees' experiences of fit and misfit without the imposition of pre-defined parameters. Employees were recruited to take part in this research which is a strength as the use of students in PE fit studies has been recognised as a potential limitation and research with employees in natural work settings has been called for (Kristof-Brown et al, 2002). The employees occupied a range of positions and professions in three different organisations and came from very varied backgrounds.

The methods used have been shown to have had limitations but using qualitative methods for PE fit research was found to be a strength in that it was possible to gain individuals' experiences of multiple dimensions of fit, rather than focusing on one aspect of fit in isolation. Using an open interview format and causal mapping allowed the participants to express all of the factors that they considered pertinent to their fit or misfit and showed how fit perceptions were influenced by factors outside of the organisation (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999).

7.8 Contributions to the PE fit Literature

This study makes a number of contributions to the PE fit field, despite its limitations. It sheds new light on a field that has seen considerable recent debate as to how its core concepts should be conceptualised, measured and delineated (Judge, 2007). The use of causal mapping methods enabled employees' fit and misfit perceptions to be explored with the purpose of assessing how different dimensions of fit contribute to these overarching terms. This has not been done previously and helps to address some of the definitional problems in the literature. With the exception of Edwards and Billsberry's (2010) study, contributions to the explication of multidimensional fit have been conceptual (i.e. Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Wheeler et al, 2005). The findings from this study suggest that fit and misfit are perceived to be multi-dimensional by employees and that of

the existing dimensions, PO, PJ and PG fit dominate with PS fit playing a lesser but nevertheless important role, especially in potentially triggering misfit perceptions. Kristof-Brown and colleagues' meta analysis found a "paucity of PG fit studies" and a weak relationship with affective outcomes despite hypothesising "that PG fit should be more influential" (2005, p. 316). This study's findings suggest that PG fit does indeed play an important role in fit perceptions alongside PO, PJ and PS fit thereby giving inductive support to the theoretical models of multidimensional fit in the PE fit literature.

It is proposed in the literature that PE fit dimensions are independent of each other (e.g. Kristof-Brown et al, 2002; Wheeler et al, 2005). The findings of this study suggest that individuals do not appear to compartmentalise the different fit dimensions but consistently show that they influence each other. These findings lend support to Kristof-Brown and Jansen's (2007) theory of spillover and spiral effects, where one fit dimension affects another to shape people's fit perceptions. However, the findings from this study further indicate that people's personality and their lives outside of the organisation also affect their fit and misfit perceptions. It appears that individuals contextualise their fit, drawing on previous experience against which to benchmark their current fit and look forward to assess how their current role fits with their future aspirations. Further, the participants showed that where the organisation met their work-life balance needs, perceptions of fit ensued. For example, participants mentioned needing to care for elderly relatives and young children and how their particular job, its location and the benefits offered by the organisation, allowed them to meet these needs and obligations. Therefore, a further contribution is that the use of both complementary and supplementary PO fit in studies may better capture misfit perceptions than the sole use of values or personality congruence. This contribution builds on Cable and DeRue's (2002) finding that both complementary and supplementary fit were important to people's fit perceptions and

would allow needs-supplies fit to be assessed not only at the job level but also at the organisational level.

Personality, as noted in sections 5.20 and 7.4, is recognised to be relevant to individuals' organisational fit (see Schneider, 2007) and the match of people's personality to the work environment has been extensively studied for all of the PE fit dimensions. Previous research has found that the congruence of individuals' personality traits with those of the group or organisation leads to perceptions of fit (e.g Barsade et al, 2000; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002; Kristof-Brown et al, 2005). However, the findings of this study suggest that personality may play a role in fit perceptions outside of the P-E relationships normally studied in organisational fit research. A number of participants spoke about their personality traits in isolation rather than suggesting that these led to supplementary or complementary fit due to a relationship or interaction with environmental factors. One participant for example noted that he was generally very negative and tended to "look at everything a bit too gloomily" and suggested that this predisposed him to misfit at work. Others noted that they were generally agreeable and adaptable, making it easy for them to fit in at work. As such, participants were saying that part of what made them fit at work was down to their nature or 'the way that they were'. This suggests that personality is potentially an antecedent to fit and misfit at work and it is possible therefore that there are people who are predisposed to fit in or to misfit wherever they work, which supports Bowers' (1973) argument that traits can predict behaviour in isolation of the situation. Arguably, these were the participants' self-perceptions of their personality types and further research is needed, as is discussed in section 7.9.

However, perhaps the most important contribution of this research is in demonstrating that misfit is a negative experience for individuals, even when it is only temporary and the individual manages to move or change the situation to re-establish their

fit. The participants who misfitted moved jobs or wanted to move, supporting Schneider's (1987b) attrition theory. How this and the other contributions may be tested and developed through further research is discussed in section 7.9.

7.9 Directions for Future Research

The exploratory nature of this study has arguably raised more questions than it has answered. A wealth of data were generated by a fairly small pool of participants and further research is required to establish whether the findings hold true for larger and different groups of employees. Nomothetic research is therefore called for, to move from this study's inductive analysis to test its findings deductively.

One way of achieving this, whilst still exploiting the benefits of causal mapping, would be through the use of Clarkson and Hodgkinson's (2005) Cognizer programme (see section 5.7). It would be possible to derive a pool of constructs from this study's findings and, once piloted, to administer these to employees in different organisations and, potentially, in different countries. The use of Cognizer would allow for a more careful assessment of the influence of the different fit dimensions on each other through the use of indegree and outdegree values, which would confirm or refute this study's finding that the fit dimensions inter-relate. Such a study could therefore also be used to test whether spillover and spirals (Kristof-Brown & Jansen, 2007) have an influence. As noted in section 5.7, Cognizer would permit the relative salience of different dimensions to be assessed, but it would also be possible to compare composite maps for different groups so that, for example, the effect of personality on fit perceptions could be researched.

The identification of personality traits as a possible antecedent to fit or misfit has implications for future PE fit studies in that the focus on solely the interaction or congruence between P and E variables may give an incomplete assessment of employees'

experience of organisational fit. The use of Cognizer or polynomial regression studies using response surface graphs may be helpful in identifying the relative contributions of the person (P) and environment (E) and in teasing out the degree to which individual and organisational variables interact. Whatever method is used, it is suggested by this study's findings that further research on whether people are predisposed to fit or misfit is warranted.

However, the use of an instrument such as Cognizer (Clarkson & Hodgkinson, 2005) is not the only potential avenue for further research. This study found that people make a comparative assessment of their fit by looking back to previous experiences and looking forward to where they want to be. Longitudinal research is frequently called for in the PE fit field (e.g. Vogel & Feldman, 2009) and this is echoed here, as longitudinal research could establish how the different employment stages make certain dimensions of fit salient (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006). It could thereby be established whether PV and PI fit were not salient to this study's participants because of the types of organisation that they were employed by or the employment stage that they were in or, whether they are relatively less important than PO, PJ, PG and PS fit. However, longitudinal research would also present the opportunity to study how positive or negative experiences in one job shaped fit perceptions in the next job.

The finding that factors and influences outside of the workplace affect fit and misfit perceptions needs to be supported with research studying a larger and broader array of employees and organisations before any firm conclusions can be drawn. However, if it is indeed shown that perceptions of fit and misfit are not limited to the physical and psychological boundaries of the working environment, it will cause a reassessment of many of the ways in which fit and misfit are assessed and measured. At present, research tends not to stray outside the organisational domain when constructing measures and

assessing fit (for an exception see Edwards & Rothbard, 1999). If it is shown that non-work variables affect individuals' fit and misfit it would be necessary to amend current PE fit tools to assess their influence.

This study focused on employees' perceptions of fit and misfit but did not consider their outcomes. PE fit research is concerned with the behaviour that results from the match of the person and their environment (Pervin, 1989) and although chapter 3 showed that a great deal of research has been conducted focusing on the outcomes of PE fit (see section 3.5), relatively little empirical research has studied the outcomes of PE misfit, leading to calls for this to be remedied (Billsberry et al, 2006; Wheeler et al, 2007; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). This study's findings suggest (based on small numbers) that people who perceive that they misfit leave the organisation. Future research which tests Schneider's (1987b) attrition theory would therefore be apposite to assess whether misfits leave or as Wheeler et al (2005) proposed, if this route is not open to them, that they turn instead to inaction, façade or expressing their concerns through voicing them. Fit research has tended to focus on positive affective outcomes but it is arguably more urgent to address what is causing people to suffer from stress and to leave work. There are therefore several potential avenues for future research, but of these, the exploration of how people come to be misfits in organisations appears to be the most urgent due to lack of previous research and because of the potentially negative consequences that misfit has on individuals (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

7.10 Managerial Implications

This study did not focus specifically on the outcomes and managerial implications of individuals' perceptions of organisational fit and misfit, however its findings point to areas which could impact on management practice. The first of these is that it has been

shown that misfit is a negative state for individuals and potentially linked to stress and job turnover. In March 2010 the UK's Health and Safety Executive study on work-related illness reported that an estimated 11.4 million working days (full-time equivalent) were lost in 2008/09 due stress which was either perceived to be caused by work or exacerbated by it (Health & Safety Executive, 2010). If these rates of absence are to any degree caused by individuals perceiving that they misfit, then this gives an impetus for misfit to be both identified and actively managed in the workplace.

The majority of the participants reported misfitting to some extent at work and it appeared that it was possible to trigger misfit, especially where there was a change of management. It is conceivable therefore that misfit may be latent in employees and that specific environmental changes will trigger it. Identifying and managing the factors which cause people's to step from organisational fit to misfit therefore appear to be worthy of both future research and management attention. However, the finding that it is normal for employees to perceive that they misfit to some extent may also be helpful to HR practitioners. This study's findings suggest that strong PJ fit is particularly important for individuals to perceive that they fit well at work and therefore, in recruitment and selection, it may be advisable to focus primarily on potential employees' PJ fit before considering the individual's fit to the other PE fit dimensions. Conversely, poor PO fit was implicated in organisational misfit, with poor management practice, management cliques, lack of communication and bullying being cited as examples. The behaviour of managers in the higher echelons of the organisation therefore appears to impact on other employees' fit perceptions and organisations could address senior managers' conduct and behaviour with a view to increasing fit perceptions amongst their staff.

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APPENDIX 1

OU Business School

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United Kingdom

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9 October 2008

Dear

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study conducted by the Open University Business School which focuses on people's perceptions of how well they 'fit' at work. We are particularly interested in what makes some people feel that they do *not* fit. It is known that feelings of misfit can lead to stress, absenteeism and ultimately staff turnover. We are therefore looking for organisations which would like to find out more about what influences individuals' perceptions of misfit with a view to getting a greater understanding of the factors that may be having an impact on employees.

I would like to conduct face-to face interviews with 10 employees from your organisation. I am hoping that you would be able to circulate an email to your staff asking for volunteers to be interviewed. I will also be conducting interviews in a range of other eminent organisations in Milton Keynes with the purpose of combining the data to discover the factors that cause people to become misfits. All data will be anonymised (in accordance with British Psychological Society guidelines) and the name of your organisation will not be disclosed in the report.

In return for your help, we would be happy to provide you with the findings, which will give you an in-depth analysis of the factors causing people's misfit. These data may be helpful to your organisation's recruitment, induction and staff management strategies. Involvement in this project is completely free.

This research study is supervised by Professor Graeme Salaman (author of numerous articles and books on strategy and human resource management), Dr Jon Billsberry, who has also written extensively on HR subjects and Dr Geoff Mallory, a specialist in strategic management. Although I am not such a distinguished author, I nevertheless have 20 years' experience of HR and this, in combination with my academic experience (MBA and MSc in research methods), gives me the skills and credibility to conduct sensitive and professional interviews with your staff.

I hope that you would like to participate in this study. I will call you in a couple of days to see if you are interested in joining the project. Alternatively, you can contact me on 01908 654660 or d.talbot@open.ac.uk. I would of course be happy to meet with you and to provide you with further information. I look forward to speaking to you.

Yours sincerely

Danielle Talbot

APPENDIX 2

RESEARCH STUDY LOOKING AT HOW PEOPLE 'FIT IN' AT WORK

Would you like to take part in a research study? Danielle Talbot from the Open University is carrying out research into how people fit or don't fit at work. She would like to talk to people in a variety of jobs to hear about their experiences.

Interviews take about an hour and will be held at [redacted] offices. The process is very informal and you don't need any particular skills to get involved: you just need to be willing to talk about your experiences of fitting in or not fitting in at work.

If you would like to take part, please contact Dannie on 01908 654660 or email d.talbot@open.ac.uk. Alternatively, you can contact [redacted] (who is dealing with administrative arrangements and room bookings) on 01908 [redacted] or email [redacted].

APPENDIX 3

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November 2008

RESEARCH STUDY LOOKING AT HOW PEOPLE 'FIT IN' AT WORK

A great deal of research has focused on people's behaviour at work; for example, what attracts them to organisations, how they work with others, what motivates them and why they leave. Academics have also looked at what makes people 'fit' at work. Studies have looked at how similar people are to others in terms of their personality, values, knowledge, skills and abilities or how well a person complements a team by bringing in qualities which the team needs.

We hoping to increase our understanding of what makes people fit in at work and why some people do *not* fit in. It could be that not fitting in is the opposite of fitting in, but it may also be the case that feeling that you don't fit in at work is caused by different factors to those that make you feel that you fit. We also do not know whether not fitting in is necessarily negative: it could be that it is a positive experience for some people or that it has beneficial consequences.

The study's aims are:

- To understand what it means for people to fit or to not to fit in at work;
- To understand the causes and consequences of people's 'fit' at work.

I would like to interview people face-to-face which usually takes between half an hour and an hour. There are no right or wrong answers: I would like to find out what people's own experiences and feelings are about how they fit at work. During each interview, I will use the interviewee's comments to put together a causal map showing how everything links together to give a 'picture' of how they fit. If people agree, I will tape the interview (this helps me afterwards to remember exactly what was said).

The interview will be conducted under strict Open University ethical guidelines. This means that people's names will not be used in the research report and individuals' comments will not be passed on. All interview data will be anonymised and securely stored with password protection and kept in a lockable filing system. The information provided will be for educational or research purposes, including publication. Participants may withdraw from the project at anytime and any information that they had given would be destroyed.

I hope that you would like to take part in this research. You can contact me by email at d.talbot@open.ac.uk , by 'phone on 01908 654660.

If you have any concerns about this research study, please contact Dr Billsberry by email at j.billsberry@open.ac.uk or by telephone on 01908 652906.

APPENDIX 4

Consent of Participation and Digital Recording

Thank you for taking the time to speak to me about my research. This study looks at what makes people feel that they fit or misfit in organisations. If you agree to be interviewed (and you are under no obligation to do so) the purpose will be to find out what has caused your feelings of fit and what effects this has had. I will be using the data from all of the interviews that I conduct to help me to improve our understanding of the causes and consequences of people's 'fit' at work. The data from the interviews will be used for my PhD thesis and may subsequently be published.

Please note that both your identity and the identity of others in your responses will be treated as confidential and all data that is collected will be stored securely, accessible only to me and two other members of the research team, and are subject to the Data Protection Act safeguards. No information will be released or published that might identify you.

I expect that the interview will last for approximately an hour. I will be asking you some open questions and I will use a 'causal mapping' technique which will allow you to link together your own experiences of how you feel that you fit in at work. There are no right or wrong answers.

Participation is voluntary and you can stop at any time if you wish. There is a 48 hour 'cooling off period' following this interview and, if you request it, you may withdraw your participation in which case any information that you have provided will be destroyed.

If you have any concerns about this research study or if you wish to speak to someone in confidence, please contact Dr Jon Billsberry by email at j.billsberry@open.ac.uk or by telephone on 01908 652906.

I consent to taking part in the interview and understand that I have the right to withdraw at any point during the session:

Name: _____ Signature: _____ Date:_____

I will be taking notes throughout the interview, but with your consent, I would also like to take a digital audio recording for the purpose of clarifying our notes. This is of course optional.

I consent to the digital recording of the interview and understand that all data will be confidential and stored securely by the researcher:

Name: _____ Signature: _____ Date:_____

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research.
Danielle Talbot, Open University Business School, email: d.talbot@open.ac.uk

APPENDIX 5

INTERVIEW FORMAT

Introduction:

Thank you for taking the time to talk to me.

I think that this interview will last about an hour.

As I mentioned in my email/on the 'phone, I will make sure that all of the data stays completely confidential & secure and your name will not be used.

Can I tape our conversation? → Consent form.

There aren't any right or wrong answers – I'm just interested in your perceptions.

Interview:

I would like us to put together a causal map as we speak, which basically shows, in diagram form, how the different factors that you talk about link together. I will type this up afterwards and will send you a copy if you'd like me to.

So, thinking about how you fit in at work, can you tell me what you think causes you to fit or to misfit?

Prompts:

What caused that?
How did it start?
How did that come about?
What effect has that had?

When it seems that they have no more to add:

Is there anything missing from this map? Anything that you'd like to add?
Do you think that this is a good picture of what makes you fit and misfit?

People who predominantly fit:

- Have you ever been a misfit in this organisation?
- Have you ever been a misfit in previous jobs?
- How did you get back to being a fit?

People who predominantly misfit:

- What happened to make you misfit here? How did it happen? "Talk me through how it happened".
- How has being a misfit changed your behaviour at work?
- How does your misfit make you feel?

- Do you want to resolve it? If so, how can you do so?
- Thinking about other places you've worked, have you been a **fit** in other companies? What was similar and different to your present company?
- Have you been a misfit in other companies? How was it similar and different to being a misfit here?

So far we've been mainly talking about the environment in which you've worked. I'd like to end by talking about you.

- How would you describe your personality?
- Do you think you are naturally predisposed to fit or misfit at work?
- What do you hope to achieve by coming to work?
- What are your career goals?

End:

Thank you for your time and for talking to me.

Everything that you have said remains confidential and will be anonymised.

Would you like a copy of the causal map once I have typed it up?

Give copy of information sheet – or run through the questions and fill it in.

APPENDIX 6
CODING SCHEDULE

CODE	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE MEASURES	SOURCE
Person-Organization Fit - "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or c) both". (Kristof,1996)			
PO		To what degree do you feel your values 'match' or fit this organization and the current employees in this organization? My values match those of current employees in the organization Do you think the values and 'personality' of this organization reflect your own values and personality?	Cable & Judge (1996)
PO		**Goals** I identify strongly with the goals of my organization. My personal goals and the goals of my organization are very similar. **Values** The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values. My personal values match my organization's values and culture. My organization's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.	Vogel & Feldman (2009) Taken from: Cable & DeRue 2002
PO		To what extent does your new organization measure up to the kind of organization you were seeking? To what extent are the values of the organization similar to your own values? To what extent does your personality match the personality or image of the organization? To what extent is the organization a good match for you?	Saks & Ashforth (1997)
PO		My values prevent me from fitting in at this company because they are different from the company's values.	Lauver & Kristof-Brown (2001) Taken from: Cable & Judge (1996)
PO		I don't care about the goals of this organization as much as many of my co-workers do.	Vogel & Feldman (2009). Taken from: Cable & DeRue (2002)
PO comp		I feel that I am important to this company because I have such different skills and abilities that my co-workers My co-workers rely on me because I have competencies that they do not have My co-workers consult me because I have a different perspective than they do I feel like I stand out in this organization My knowledge, skills and abilities offer something that other employees in this organization do not have I feel that I am the unique piece of the puzzle that makes this organization work Even though my personality differs from my co-workers, it	Piasentin & Chapman (2007)

		seems to complement their personalities People in this organization value that I am different from the typical employee.	
Person-Job Fit "Person-job (P-J) fit [is] the fit between the abilities of a person and the demands of a job (i.e., demands-abilities) or the desires of a person and the attributes of a job (needs-supplies)... a job is defined as the tasks a person is expected to accomplish in exchange for employment, as well as the characteristics of those tasks. Using this definition, P-J fit should be judged relative to the tasks performed, not the organization in which the job exists". (Kristof, 1996, p. 8)			
PJ		To what degree do you believe your skills and abilities 'match' those required by the job? To what degree is your job performance hurt by a lack of expertise on the job? To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to perform this job?	Cable & Judge (1996)
PJ		**Needs–supplies fit** There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job. The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job. The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job. **Abilities–demand fit** The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills. My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job. My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me.	Vogel & Feldman (2009) Taken from: Cable & DeRue (2002)
PJ		**SKILLS** My abilities fit the demands of this job I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job There is a good match between the requirements of this job and my skills **PERSONALITY/TEMPERAMENT** My personality is a good match for this job I am the right type of person for this type of work	Lauver & Kristof-Brown (2001)
PJ		To what extent do your knowledge, skills and abilities match the requirements of the job? To what extent does the job fulfil your needs? To what extent is the job a good match for you? To what extent does the job enable you to do the kind of work you want to do?	Saks & Ashforth (1997)

Person-Group Fit – "is defined as the compatibility between individuals and their work groups. The definition of work group, however, may range from a small group of immediate coworkers to any identifiable sub-unit of an organization, such as a functional department or geographic division." (Kristof, 1996).			
PG		Working with the other people in my group is one of the best parts of this job. I get along well with the people I work with on a day-to-day basis. There is not much conflict among the members of my group. If I had more free time, I would enjoy spending more time with my co-workers socially.	Vogel & Feldman (2009)
PG		There are some people I work with I try to avoid when possible	Vogel & Feldman (2009)
Person-Vocation Fit – "Fit is determined by measures assessing the similarity between an individual's personality and that of a vocational environment" (Kristof, 1996)			
PV		There is a good fit between my personal interests and the kind of work I perform in my occupation (or profession/trade). My skills and abilities are well suited for the vocation (profession/trade) that I am currently in.	Vogel & Feldman (2009)
PV		When I think about my interests, I sometimes wonder whether I chose the right occupation (profession/trade) after all.	Vogel & Feldman (2009)
Person-Supervisor Fit PS fit is the compatibility or fit between the employee and his/her supervisor/manager which may occur when there is a similarity between the two parties in terms of values, work style or personality or where the differences between the employee and supervisor are complementary (i.e. one party provides what the other needs). (this is my definition)			
PS		"How similar is the candidate to yourself on the following characteristics: attitudes toward work, approaches for dealing with problems; and beliefs about how people should be treated at work? Overall, the candidate and I are similar kinds of people.	Graves & Powell (1988)
PS		*Interpersonal attractions.* personal feelings about the applicant and beliefs about the applicant's desirability as a work partner.	Graves & Powell (1988) Taken from: Byrne (1971)
PS		my values are similar to those of my supervisor my supervisor and I are alike my supervisor and I complement each other well	Adapted from: Brown & Trevino (2009).
Person-Individual Fit - the fit between an employee and a co-worker (who is not his/her supervisor/manager) where the two parties are similar in their approach to work, values or personality or where the employee and co-worker complement each other. (my definition).			
PI		I am similar to my colleague We share similar attitudes to work We share similar beliefs as to how people should be treated at work My colleague is a good person to work with My colleague knows what's going on My colleague has similar moral values to mine My colleague is emotionally well-adjusted.	Adapted from: Graves & Powell (1988)

Organizational Demography/Social Identity			
Age			Jackson & Chung (2008 Taken from Pfeffer (1983).
Tenure			
Gender	Sex		
Race			
Socio	Socio-economic background		
Religion			
Education	Education level		

Job Embeddedness

"JE is an overall construct conceptualized as the combined forces that keep a person from leaving his or her job…. There are 3 dimensions to this construct: links, fit and sacrifice. Each dimension is related to both on and off-the-job situations, suggesting six separate factors that contribute to JE." (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton & Sablynski, 2004, p. 156).

Fit-C	**Fit-Community**	I really love the place where I live. The weather where I live is suitable for me. This community is a good match for me. I think of the community where I live as home. The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like.	Mitchell et al (2001)
Fit-O	**Fit – Organization**	IGNORE THIS AS IT SHOULD BE THE SAME AS PO FIT	Mitchell et al (2001)
Links-C	**Links – Community**	Are you currently married? If you are married, does your spouse work outside the home? Do you own the home you live in? My family roots are in this community. How many family members live nearby? How many of your close friends live nearby?	Mitchell et al (2001)
Links-O	**Links – Organization**	How long have you been in your present position? How long have you worked for this company? How long have you worked in the xxxxx industry? How many coworkers do you interact with regularly? How many coworkers are highly dependent on you? How many work teams are you on? How many work committees are you on?	Mitchell et al (2001)
Sacrif-C	**Sacrifice – Community**	Leaving this community would be very hard. People respect me a lot in my community. My neighbourhood is safe.	Mitchell et al (2001)
Sacrif-O	**Sacrifice – Organization**	I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals. The perks on this job are outstanding. I feel that people at work respect me a great deal. I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job. My promotional opportunities are excellent here. I am well compensated for my level of performance. The benefits are good on this job. The health-care benefits provided by this organization are excellent. The retirement benefits provided by this organization are excellent. The prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent.	Mitchell et al (2001)

APPENDIX 7

Confidential

Notes on coding the fit/misfit map data

Thanks very much for your help in coding the data from the fit and misfit maps!

Background

As a bit of background, these maps were drawn up during interviews with 38 working people. The first two interviews were with OUBS alumni. Interviewee 1 works in XXXXX and interviewee 2 works for XXXXXXX. Interviewee 3 works for XXXXXXXX. The other 35 interviewees worked for 3 organisations: *[one manufacturing, one retailing and one public sector].*

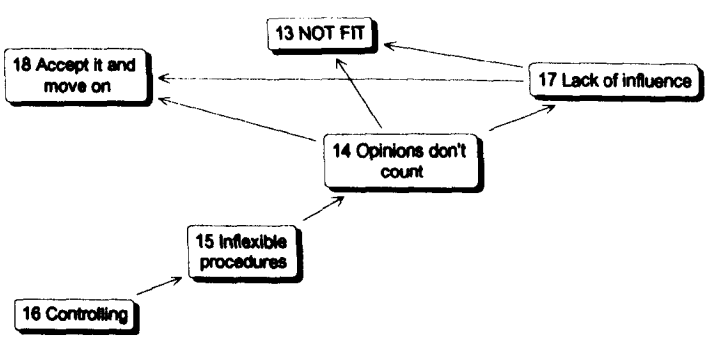
[Background information about the organisations has been deleted to preserve confidentiality and anonymity]

Process

All of the participants were asked to talk about the things that made them fit and/or misfit at work. Whilst we spoke, I wrote down key points on post-it notes and stuck them on a piece of flipchart paper in order to build up each person's causal map. The comments that you will see in the enclosed documents are therefore verbatim comments, not my words or interpretations of what the interviewees meant.

The data

Enclosed are the 38 participants' maps. You don't actually need these; they are there as helpful (?) additional information. In general, each map has 2 'heads'; one called FIT and the other called MISFIT. There are chains of concepts leading to each head. At the end of each chain is a 'tail' concept, so on the diagram below, 'controlling' is a tail concept which leads to a chain of other concepts to the 'head' which on this example is 'not fit'.



For each map I have drawn out the concepts which lead to fit and those which lead to misfit. Each map has 2 tables associated with it: one with fit constructs and the other with those constructs which lead to misfit. In the first column on each table I have marked the tail concepts with *. The concepts which appear on *both* the fit and the misfit tables are marked with #. You do not need to take any particular notice of the tail concepts marked *. However, please check that you have coded the concepts marked # the same on both the fit and misfit tables.

Under each fit and misfit table there is a table listing the tails. This table does not have a right hand column and you are not expected to code these constructs (as they already appear on the main table).

There are a few maps which had no fit concepts or conversely, no misfit concepts. Where this is the case, I have made a note on the accompanying table.

Coding

Enclosed is a coding schedule which shows you the codes that I would like you to use. You'll be familiar with most if not all of them. They are all drawn from the Person-Environment fit, Job Embeddedness and Organisational demography/social identity literatures.

For each of the codes I have provided a definition to give you an overview of the general meaning. I have then provided a list of measures which have been used in the literature to give you an idea of the general types of things that you are looking for. Obviously the participants will have used their own words – we are looking for similarity of meaning rather than an exact match of the wording. There are 19 possible codes. For the various dimensions of fit (PO, PJ, PG, PI, PV, PS) I have given a number of examples from the literature which is why those sections of the table are quite long. The demographic codes (age, gender, race etc.) are, I hope, fairly self-explanatory and I therefore have not provided any explanatory notes. The job embeddedness (JE) codes are perhaps less familiar to you and I hope that the examples of measures in the table will clarify what each of the codes means.

I think that because of the nature of the data and the fact that I have used verbatim comments, it will not be possible to code all of the constructs. If you feel that a construct is not code-able, please put a line in the right hand column to show that there is no relevant code and that you haven't left it out by accident!

Confidentiality

Obviously, the identity of the participating organisations and individuals needs to be kept confidential. The 'research team' is permitted to have full access to all data but I would be grateful if you could make sure that you keep the maps and lists of constructs in a safe place so that they don't go missing!

Thanks again for your help. If you need any more detail or want to talk something through, do give me a ring or drop me a line.

Dannie

APPENDIX 8

Research into 'Fit' at Work

I would be grateful if you could provide me with some information which will help me to make sure that I have spoken to a cross-section of working people. This information will be stored securely and will not be disclosed. All the information that you give me will be anonymised – i.e. your name will be changed so that you are not identifiable in the report.

Name: _____

Gender: Male Female *(please circle)*

Age:

under 20	☐
20 - 29	☐
30 – 39	☐
40 – 49	☐
50 – 59	☐
60 – 65	☐
Over 65	☐

Job title: _____

No. of staff managed: _____

No. of years in this job: _____

No. of years in work: _____

How many companies have you worked for? _____

What is the longest time you've spent at any company? _____

Highest qualification: _____

To what extent do you think that you currently fit or misfit at work?

Misfit	More misfit than fit	Neither	More fit than misfit	Fit
1	2	3	4	5

If 'Neither', please elaborate: _____

To what extent did you have a sense of your fit before this interview?

_____

How would you have answered the fit/misfit question before this interview? _____

APPENDIX 9

The 172 Codes in Alphabetical Order

	CODE	DT	VA	PN	Total
1	AGE	7	3	11	21
2	AGE exp	1	0	0	1
3	AGE PI	1	0	0	1
4	AGE PG	0	0	1	1
5	AGE PJ	1	0	0	1
6	AGE PO	1	0	0	1
7	CULT	23	9	25	57
8	CULT race	2	0	0	2
9	CULT soc	13	15	1	29
10	econ	1	0	0	1
11	EDU FIT C	1	1	0	2
12	EDU PJ	3	0	0	3
13	EDUC	2	3	5	10
14	EDUC LO	0	0	1	1
15	exp	2	0	0	2
16	facilities SO	1	0	0	1
17	FC LC	3	0	0	3
18	FIT C	43	62	35	140
19	FIT C SC	1	0	3	4
20	GEN PG	1	0	0	1
21	GEN PO	1	0	1	2
22	GENDER	2	0	2	4
23	HEALTH	9	4	2	15
24	JE	0	1	0	1
25	language	1	0	0	1
26	LC FIT C	3	5	0	8
27	LC LO	0	0	5	5
28	LC PO	1	0	0	1
29	LC SC	0	1	1	2
30	LC SO	4	1	2	7
31	LC w-l bal	1	0	0	1
32	LINKS C	111	128	134	373
33	LINKS C SO	0	0	1	1
34	LINKS O	13	4	57	74
35	LINKS O LC	0	0	1	1
36	LINKS O PG	0	0	3	3
37	LINKS O SO	0	0	9	9
38	LINKS O TEN	0	0	1	1
39	P	77	93	315	485
40	P CULT	0	0	1	1
41	P GENDER	0	0	1	1
42	P LO	0	0	3	3
43	P PG	40	2	9	51
44	P PG PJ	1	0	0	1
45	P PG PO	1	0	0	1
46	P PJ	30	5	15	50
47	P PO	7	1	2	10

The 172 Codes in Order of Frequency

CODE	DT	VA	PN	Total
PJ	466	630	250	1346
PG	423	379	293	1095
PO	350	487	251	1088
PS	174	311	123	608
P	77	93	315	485
NO CODE	155	174	107	436
LINKS C	111	128	134	373
SACR O	82	52	231	365
FIT C	43	62	35	140
PV	28	18	74	120
PI	35	19	35	89
TEN LO	32	15	28	75
LINKS O	13	4	57	74
PJ SO	23	7	38	68
SOCIO	15	19	34	68
PJ D-A	0	0	60	60
CULT	23	9	25	57
P PG	40	2	9	51
P PJ	30	5	15	50
PG LO	20	0	27	47
PO SO	22	1	23	46
PG PO	17	7	13	37
PO PJ	18	7	5	30
CULT soc	13	15	1	29
PJ LINKS O	16	0	13	29
PJ PV	17	6	4	27
PO PG	14	4	8	26
PJ exp	21	4	0	25
PS SO	5	0	20	25
PJ N-S	0	0	23	23
PG PJ	21	1	0	22
PI PS	0	0	22	22
AGE	7	3	11	21
TENURE	2	14	4	20
PJ PO	14	2	2	18
PO dress	17	0	0	17
PG SO	2	1	13	16
PO PS	6	3	7	16
HEALTH	9	4	2	15
PG P	6	0	8	14
PO comp	5	2	7	14
PJ PG	9	2	2	13
PV SO	5	0	8	13
PS PJ	5	0	7	12
SACR C	1	4	7	12
PJ P	5	2	4	11
PJ PS	9	0	2	11

48	P PS	1	0	1	2
49	P PS PJ	1	0	0	1
50	P PV	1	0	1	2
51	P SO	0	0	7	7
52	P socio	0	0	3	3
53	P values	0	1	0	1
54	PG	423	379	293	1095
55	PG AGE	2	0	2	4
56	PG CULT	3	0	2	5
57	PG DRESS	2	0	0	2
58	PG FIT C	0	2	0	2
59	PG GENDER	0	0	4	4
60	PG LC	1	0	5	6
61	PG LO	20	0	27	47
62	PG LO LC	0	0	1	1
63	PG P	6	0	8	14
64	PG PI	3	0	1	4
65	PG PJ	21	1	0	22
66	PG PJ P	0	0	1	1
67	PG PO	17	7	13	37
68	PG PO LO	0	0	2	2
69	PG PS	5	0	3	8
70	PG PS SO	0	0	1	1
71	PG PV	0	0	2	2
72	PG RACE	0	1	0	1
73	PG SO	2	1	13	16
74	PG PJ SO	1	0	0	1
75	PG SO PO	0	0	2	2
76	PG SOC AGE	0	0	1	1
77	PI	35	19	35	89
78	PI DRESS	1	0	0	1
79	PI LO	1	0	0	1
80	PI PG	4	0	1	5
81	PI PJ	3	0	0	3
82	PI PO	0	0	1	1
83	PI PS	0	0	22	22
84	PI SO	0	0	1	1
85	PJ	466	630	250	1346
86	PJ AGE	2	0	0	2
87	PJ D-A	0	0	60	60
88	PJ EDUC	0	4	0	4
89	PJ exp	21	4	0	25
90	PJ LINKS C	4	0	3	7
91	PJ LINKS C SO	0	0	1	1
92	PJ LINKS O	16	0	13	29
93	PJ LO SO	0	0	1	1
94	PJ N-S	0	0	23	23
95	PJ N-S SO	0	0	1	1
96	PJ P	5	2	4	11
97	PJ PG	9	2	2	13
98	PJ PG PS	0	0	1	1

PJ skills	2	0	9	11
PV PJ	4	2	5	11
PV socio	6	0	5	11
EDUC	2	3	5	10
P PO	7	1	2	10
PO P	1	4	5	10
SO LC	1	0	9	10
LINKS O SO	0	0	9	9
PS PG	5	0	4	9
LC FIT C	3	5	0	8
PG PS	5	0	3	8
RELIGION	2	4	2	8
LC SO	4	1	2	7
P SO	0	0	7	7
PJ LINKS C	4	0	3	7
PG LC	1	0	5	6
PO LINKS O	2	0	4	6
PO PV	5	1	0	6
TEN SO	0	5	1	6
LC LO	0	0	5	5
PG CULT	3	0	2	5
PI PG	4	0	1	5
PS PO	2	1	2	5
FIT C SC	1	0	3	4
GENDER	2	0	2	4
PG AGE	2	0	2	4
PG GENDER	0	0	4	4
PG PI	3	0	1	4
PJ EDUC	0	4	0	4
PO SO PS	0	0	4	4
PV PO	2	0	2	4
SO PJ	1	0	3	4
WL BALANCE	4	0	0	4
EDU PJ	3	0	0	3
FC LC	3	0	0	3
LINKS O PG	0	0	3	3
P LO	0	0	3	3
P socio	0	0	3	3
PI PJ	3	0	0	3
PO comp PG	0	0	3	3
PS PI	0	0	3	3
RACE	1	1	1	3
CULT race	2	0	0	2
EDU FIT C	1	1	0	2
exp	2	0	0	2
GEN PO	1	0	1	2
LC SC	0	1	1	2
P PS	1	0	1	2
P PV	1	0	1	2
PG DRESS	2	0	0	2
PG FIT C	0	2	0	2

99	PJ PI	0	0	1	1
100	PJ PO	14	2	2	18
101	PJ PO EDUC	0	1	0	1
102	PJ PO PV	0	0	1	1
103	PJ PS	9	0	2	11
104	PJ PV	17	6	4	27
105	PJ SC	0	0	1	1
106	PJ skills	2	0	9	11
107	PJ SO	23	7	38	68
108	PJ TEN P	0	0	2	2
109	PO	350	487	251	1088
110	PO comp	5	2	7	14
111	PO comp AGE	0	0	1	1
112	PO comp LO	0	0	1	1
113	PO comp PG	0	0	3	3
114	PO dress	17	0	0	17
115	PO exp	1	0	0	1
116	PO LINKS O	2	0	4	6
117	PO P	1	4	5	10
118	PO PG	14	4	8	26
119	PO PG LC	0	0	2	2
120	PO PJ	18	7	5	30
121	PO PJ N-S	0	0	1	1
122	PO PJ PG	0	0	1	1
123	PO PJ PV	1	0	0	1
124	PO PS	6	3	7	16
125	PO PV	5	1	0	6
126	PO SO	22	1	23	46
127	PO socio	2	0	0	2
128	PO SO PJ	0	0	1	1
129	PO SO PS	0	0	4	4
130	PO TENURE	1	0	0	1
131	PS	174	311	123	608
132	PS LC	0	0	1	1
133	PS LINKS O	1	0	1	2
134	PS P	0	0	1	1
135	PS PG	5	0	4	9
136	PS PI	0	0	3	3
137	PS PJ	5	0	7	12
138	PS PJ SO	1	0	0	1
139	PS PJ TEN	0	0	1	1
140	PS PO	2	1	2	5
141	PS PO PJ	0	1	0	1
142	PS PV	0	0	1	1
143	PS SO	5	0	20	25
144	PS soc	0	0	1	1
145	PV	28	18	74	120
146	PV LC	0	0	2	2
147	PV P	2	0	0	2
148	PV PG SO	0	0	1	1
149	PV PJ	4	2	5	11

PG PO LO	0	0	2	2
PG PV	0	0	2	2
PG SO PO	0	0	2	2
PJ AGE	2	0	0	2
PJ TEN P	0	0	2	2
PO PG LC	0	0	2	2
PO socio	2	0	0	2
PS LINKS O	1	0	1	2
PV LC	0	0	2	2
PV P	2	0	0	2
SO FC PO	0	0	2	2
SO LO	1	0	1	2
TEN PO	2	0	0	2
AGE exp	1	0	0	1
AGE PI	1	0	0	1
AGE PG	0	0	1	1
AGE PJ	1	0	0	1
AGE PO	1	0	0	1
econ	1	0	0	1
EDUC LO	0	0	1	1
facilities SO	1	0	0	1
GEN PG	1	0	0	1
JE	0	1	0	1
language	1	0	0	1
LC PO	1	0	0	1
LC w-l bal	1	0	0	1
LINKS C SO	0	0	1	1
LINKS O LC	0	0	1	1
LINKS O TEN	0	0	1	1
P CULT	0	0	1	1
P GENDER	0	0	1	1
P PG PJ	1	0	0	1
P PG PO	1	0	0	1
P PS PJ	1	0	0	1
P values	0	1	0	1
PG LO LC	0	0	1	1
PG PJ P	0	0	1	1
PG PS SO	0	0	1	1
PG RACE	0	1	0	1
PG PJ SO	1	0	0	1
PG SOC AGE	0	0	1	1
PI DRESS	1	0	0	1
PI LO	1	0	0	1
PI PO	0	0	1	1
PI SO	0	0	1	1
PJ LINKS C SO	0	0	1	1
PJ LO SO	0	0	1	1
PJ N-S SO	0	0	1	1
PJ PG PS	0	0	1	1
PJ PI	0	0	1	1
PJ PO EDUC	0	1	0	1

150	PV PO	2	0	2	4
151	PV SO	5	0	8	13
152	PV socio	6	0	5	11
153	RACE	1	1	1	3
154	RELIGION	2	4	2	8
155	SACR C	1	4	7	12
156	SACR O	82	52	231	365
157	SC socio	0	0	1	1
158	SO FC PO	0	0	2	2
159	SO LC	1	0	9	10
160	SO LO	1	0	1	2
161	SO P	0	0	1	1
162	SO PJ	1	0	3	4
163	SO PO	1	0	0	1
164	SOCIO	15	19	34	68
165	TEN LO	32	15	28	75
166	TEN PJ	1	0	0	1
167	TEN PO	2	0	0	2
168	TEN PV	1	0	0	1
169	TEN SO	0	5	1	6
170	TENURE	2	14	4	20
171	WL BALANCE	4	0	0	4
172	NO CODE	155	174	107	436
	Total	2537	2537	2537	7611

PJ PO PV	0	0	1	1
PJ SC	0	0	1	1
PO comp AGE	0	0	1	1
PO comp LO	0	0	1	1
PO exp	1	0	0	1
PO PJ N-S	0	0	1	1
PO PJ PG	0	0	1	1
PO PJ PV	1	0	0	1
PO SO PJ	0	0	1	1
PO TENURE	1	0	0	1
PS LC	0	0	1	1
PS P	0	0	1	1
PS PJ SO	1	0	0	1
PS PJ TEN	0	0	1	1
PS PO PJ	0	1	0	1
PS PV	0	0	1	1
PS soc	0	0	1	1
PV PG SO	0	0	1	1
SC socio	0	0	1	1
SO P	0	0	1	1
SO PO	1	0	0	1
TEN PJ	1	0	0	1
TEN PV	1	0	0	1
Totals	2537	2537	2537	7611

APPENDIX 10

FIT ONLY GROUPED CODES				
CODE	DT	VA	PN	totals
AGE	2	2	4	8
AGE exp	1	0	0	1
AGE PI	0	0	0	0
AGE PG	0	0	1	1
AGE PJ	0	0	0	0
AGE PO	1	0	0	1
PG AGE	0	0	0	0
PG SOC AGE	0	0	1	1
PJ AGE	1	0	0	1
PO comp AGE	0	0	1	1
AGE TOTAL				14
exp	1	0	0	1
AGE exp	1	0	0	1
PJ exp	13	2	0	15
PO exp	1	0	0	1
exp TOTAL				18
CULT	10	3	9	22
CULT race	1	0	0	1
CULT soc	6	8	0	14
P CULT	0	0	0	0
PG CULT	0	0	1	1
CULT TOTAL				38
PG DRESS	0	0	0	0
PI DRESS	0	0	0	0
PO dress	12	0	0	12
DRESS TOTAL				12
econ	0	0	0	0
econ TOTAL				0
EDUC	2	3	5	10
EDU FIT C	1	1	0	2
EDU PJ	2	0	0	2
EDUC LO	0	0	1	1
PJ EDUC	0	3	0	3
PJ PO EDUC	0	0	0	0
EDUC TOTAL				18
facilities SO	0	0	0	0
facilities TOTAL				0

MISFIT ONLY GROUPED CODES			
DT	VA	PN	totals
5	1	7	13
0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1
0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1
0	0	0	0
2	0	2	4
0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1
0	0	0	0
			20
1	0	0	1
0	0	0	0
8	2	0	10
0	0	0	0
			11
13	6	16	35
1	0	0	1
7	7	1	15
0	0	1	1
3	0	1	4
			56
2	0	0	2
1	0	0	1
5	0	0	5
			8
1	0	0	1
			1
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	0	1
			3
1	0	0	1
			1

FIT C	29	42	20	91	14	20	15	49
EDU FIT C	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	0
FC LC	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1
FIT C SC	0	0	2	2	1	0	1	2
LC FIT C	3	5	0	8	0	0	0	0
PG FIT C	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
SO FC PO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
FIT C TOTAL				106				55
GENDER	0	0	1	1	2	0	1	3
GEN PG	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
GEN PO	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
P GENDER	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PG GENDER	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2
GENDER TOTAL				5				7
HEALTH	6	2	1	9	3	2	1	6
HEALTH TOTAL				9				6
JE	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
JE TOTAL				1				0
language	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
language TOTAL				0				1
LINKS C	79	90	95	264	32	38	38	108
FC LC	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1
LC FIT C	3	5	0	8	0	0	0	0
LC LO	0	1	3	4	0	0	2	2
LC PO	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
LC SC	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
LC SO	3	0	1	4	1	0	1	2
LC w-l bal	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
LINKS C SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
LINKS O LC	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PG LC	1	0	2	3	0	0	3	3
PG LO LC	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ LINKS C	3	0	2	5	1	0	1	2
PJ LINKS C SO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PO PG LC	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
PS LC	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PV LC	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
SO LC	1	0	8	9	0	0	1	1
LINKS C TOTAL				307				124
LINKS O	7	4	35	46	6	0	22	28
EDUC LO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
LC LO	0	1	3	4	0	0	2	2
LINKS O LC	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
LINKS O PG	0	0	2	2	0	0	1	1
LINKS O SO	0	0	5	5	0	0	4	4

LINKS O TEN	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
P LO	0	0	2	2	0	0	1	1
PG LO	10	0	18	28	10	0	9	19
PG LO LC	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PG PO LO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PI LO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PJ LINKS O	10	0	8	18	6	0	5	11
PJ LO SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PO comp LO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PO LINKS O	1	0	4	5	1	0	0	1
PS LINKS O	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1
SO LO	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
TEN LO	23	11	21	55	9	4	7	20
LINKS O TOTAL				174				91
P	53	70	199	322	24	23	116	163
P CULT	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
P GENDER	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
P LO	0	0	2	2	0	0	1	1
P PG	27	2	7	36	13	0	2	15
P PG PJ	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
P PG PO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
P PJ	20	2	8	30	10	3	7	20
P PO	3	0	1	4	4	1	1	6
P PS	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1
P PS PJ	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
P PV	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
P SO	0	0	4	4	0	0	4	4
P socio	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3
P values	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
PG P	6	0	3	9	0	0	5	5
PG PJ P	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PJ P	2	0	3	5	3	2	1	6
PJ TEN P	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PO P	1	2	4	7	0	2	1	3
PS P	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PV P	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
SO P	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
P TOTAL				428				234
PG	247	227	162	636	176	152	131	459
AGE PG	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
GEN PG	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
LINKS O PG	0	0	2	2	0	0	1	1
P PG	27	2	7	36	13	0	2	15
P PG PJ	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
P PG PO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PG AGE	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	4
PG CULT	0	0	1	1	3	0	1	4
PG DRESS	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
PG FIT C	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
PG GENDER	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2

PG LC	1	0	2	3	0	0	3	3
PG LO	10	0	18	28	10	0	9	19
PG LO LC	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PG P	6	0	3	9	0	0	5	5
PG PI	1	0	0	1	2	0	1	3
PG PJ	17	0	0	17	4	1	0	5
PG PJ P	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PG PO	13	7	6	26	4	0	7	11
PG PO LO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PG PS	3	0	1	4	2	0	2	4
PG PS SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PG PV	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PG RACE	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
PG SO	1	1	12	14	1	0	1	2
PG PJ SO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PG SO PO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PG SOC AGE	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PI PG	2	0	0	2	2	0	1	3
PJ PG	4	1	0	5	5	1	2	8
PJ PG PS	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PO comp PG	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0
PO PG	7	3	5	15	7	1	3	11
PO PG LC	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
PO PJ PG	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PS PG	4	0	1	5	1	0	3	4
PV PG SO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PG TOTAL				822				575
PI	12	7	11	30	23	12	24	59
AGE PI	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
PG PI	1	0	0	1	2	0	1	3
PI DRESS	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
PI LO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PI PG	2	0	0	2	2	0	1	3
PI PJ	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1
PI PO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PI PS	0	0	2	2	0	0	20	20
PI SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ PI	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PS PI	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	2
PI TOTAL				41				91
PJ	320	434	183	937	146	196	67	409
AGE PJ	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
EDU PJ	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1
P PJ	20	2	8	30	10	3	7	20
P PG PJ	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
P PS PJ	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PG PJ	17	0	0	17	4	1	0	5
PG PJ P	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PG PJ SO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PI PJ	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	1

PJ AGE	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
PJ D-A	0	0	32	32	0	0	28	28
PJ EDUC	0	3	0	3	0	1	0	1
PJ exp	13	2	0	15	8	2	0	10
PJ LINKS C	3	0	2	5	1	0	1	2
PJ LINKS C SO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PJ LINKS O	10	0	8	18	6	0	5	11
PJ LO SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ N-S	0	0	12	12	0	0	11	11
PJ N-S SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ P	2	0	3	5	3	2	1	6
PJ PG	4	1	0	5	5	1	2	8
PJ PG PS	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ PI	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ PO	8	2	1	11	6	0	1	7
PJ PO EDUC	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
PJ PO PV	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PJ PS	5	0	1	6	4	0	1	5
PJ PV	14	3	4	21	3	3	0	6
PJ SC	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PJ skills	1	0	9	10	1	0	0	1
PJ SO	14	7	24	45	9	0	14	23
PJ TEN P	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PO PJ	9	5	2	16	9	2	3	14
PO PJ N-S	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PO PJ PG	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PO PJ PV	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PO SO PJ	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PS PJ	3	0	6	9	2	0	1	3
PS PJ SO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PS PJ TEN	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PS PO PJ	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
PV PJ	3	1	4	8	1	1	1	3
SO PJ	0	0	3	3	1	0	0	1
TEN PJ	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PJ TOTAL				1226				587
PO	171	254	128	553	179	233	123	535
PO comp	4	2	6	12	1	0	1	2
PO comp AGE	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PO comp LO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PO comp PG	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0
PO dress	12	0	0	12	5	0	0	5
PO exp	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PO LINKS O	1	0	4	5	1	0	0	1
PO P	1	2	4	7	0	2	1	3
PO PG	7	3	5	15	7	1	3	11
PO PG LC	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
PO PJ	9	5	2	16	9	2	3	14
PO PJ N-S	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PO PJ PG	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PO PJ PV	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

PO PS	2	1	1	4	4	2	6	12
PO PV	4	1	0	5	1	0	0	1
PO SO	18	1	15	34	4	0	8	12
PO socio	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
PO SO PJ	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PO SO PS	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2
PO TENURE	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
AGE PO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
GEN PO	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
LC PO	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
P PG PO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
P PO	3	0	1	4	4	1	1	6
PG PO	13	7	6	26	4	0	7	11
PG PO LO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PG SO PO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PI PO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PJ PO	8	2	1	11	6	0	1	7
PJ PO EDUC	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
PJ PO PV	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PS PO	0	1	2	3	2	0	0	2
PS PO PJ	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
PV PO	1	0	1	2	1	0	1	2
SO FC PO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
SO PO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
TEN PO	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
PO TOTAL				733				637
PS	86	137	64	287	88	174	59	321
PS LC	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PS LINKS O	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1
PS P	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PS PG	4	0	1	5	1	0	3	4
PS PI	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	2
PS PJ	3	0	6	9	2	0	1	3
PS PJ SO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PS PJ TEN	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PS PO	0	1	2	3	2	0	0	2
PS PO PJ	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
PS PV	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PS SO	1	0	15	16	4	0	5	9
PS soc	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
P PS	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1
P PS PJ	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PG PS	3	0	1	4	2	0	2	4
PG PS SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PI PS	0	0	2	2	0	0	20	20
PJ PG PS	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ PS	5	0	1	6	4	0	1	5
PO PS	2	1	1	4	4	2	6	12
PO SO PS	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
PS TOTAL				348				387

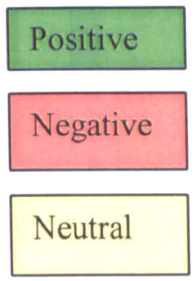
PV	22	13	48	83	6	5	26	37
PV LC	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0
PV P	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
PV PG SO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PV PJ	3	1	4	8	1	1	1	3
PV PO	1	0	1	2	1	0	1	2
PV SO	5	0	6	11	0	0	3	3
PV socio	3	0	2	5	3	0	2	5
P PV	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
PG PV	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PJ PO PV	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PJ PV	14	3	4	21	3	3	0	6
PO PJ PV	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PO PV	4	1	0	5	1	0	0	1
PS PV	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
TEN PV	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PV TOTAL				142				63
RACE	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	3
CULT race	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
PG RACE	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
RACE TOTAL				1				5
RELIGION	1	2	1	4	1	2	1	4
RELIGION TOTAL				4				4
SACR C	0	3	5	8	1	1	2	4
FIT C SC	0	0	2	2	1	0	1	2
LC SC	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
PJ SC	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
SC socio	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
SACR C TOTAL				10				10
SACR O	63	38	155	256	19	14	76	109
facilities SO	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
LC SO	3	0	1	4	1	0	1	2
LINKS C SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
LINKS O SO	0	0	5	5	0	0	4	4
P SO	0	0	4	4	0	0	4	4
PG PS SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PG SO	1	1	12	14	1	0	1	2
PG PJ SO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PG SO PO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PI SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ LINKS C SO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PJ LO SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ N-S SO	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ SO	14	7	24	45	9	0	14	23
PO SO	18	1	15	34	4	0	8	12
PO SO PJ	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PO SO PS	0	0	2	2	0	0	2	2
PS PJ SO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

PS SO	1	0	15	16	4	0	5	9
PV PG SO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PV SO	5	0	6	11	0	0	3	3
SO FC PO	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
SO LC	1	0	8	9	0	0	1	1
SO LO	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
SO P	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
SO PJ	0	0	3	3	1	0	0	1
SO PO	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
TEN SO	0	5	0	5	0	0	1	1
SACRO TOTAL				420				180
SOCIO	5	9	16	30	10	10	18	38
CULT soc	6	8	0	14	7	7	1	15
P socio	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3
PG SOC AGE	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PO socio	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
PS soc	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PV socio	3	0	2	5	3	0	2	5
SC socio	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
SOCIO TOTAL				51				64
TENURE	1	10	2	13	1	4	2	7
LINKS O TEN	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
PJ TEN P	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
PO TENURE	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
PS PJ TEN	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
TEN LO	23	11	21	55	9	4	7	20
TEN PJ	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
TEN PO	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
TEN PV	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
TEN SO	0	5	0	5	0	0	1	1
TENURE TOTAL				81				29
WL BALANCE	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	4
LC w-l bal	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
WL BAL TOTAL				1				4
NO CODE	84	94	57	235	71	80	50	201
	1846	1599	1800	5245	1198	1055	1202	3455

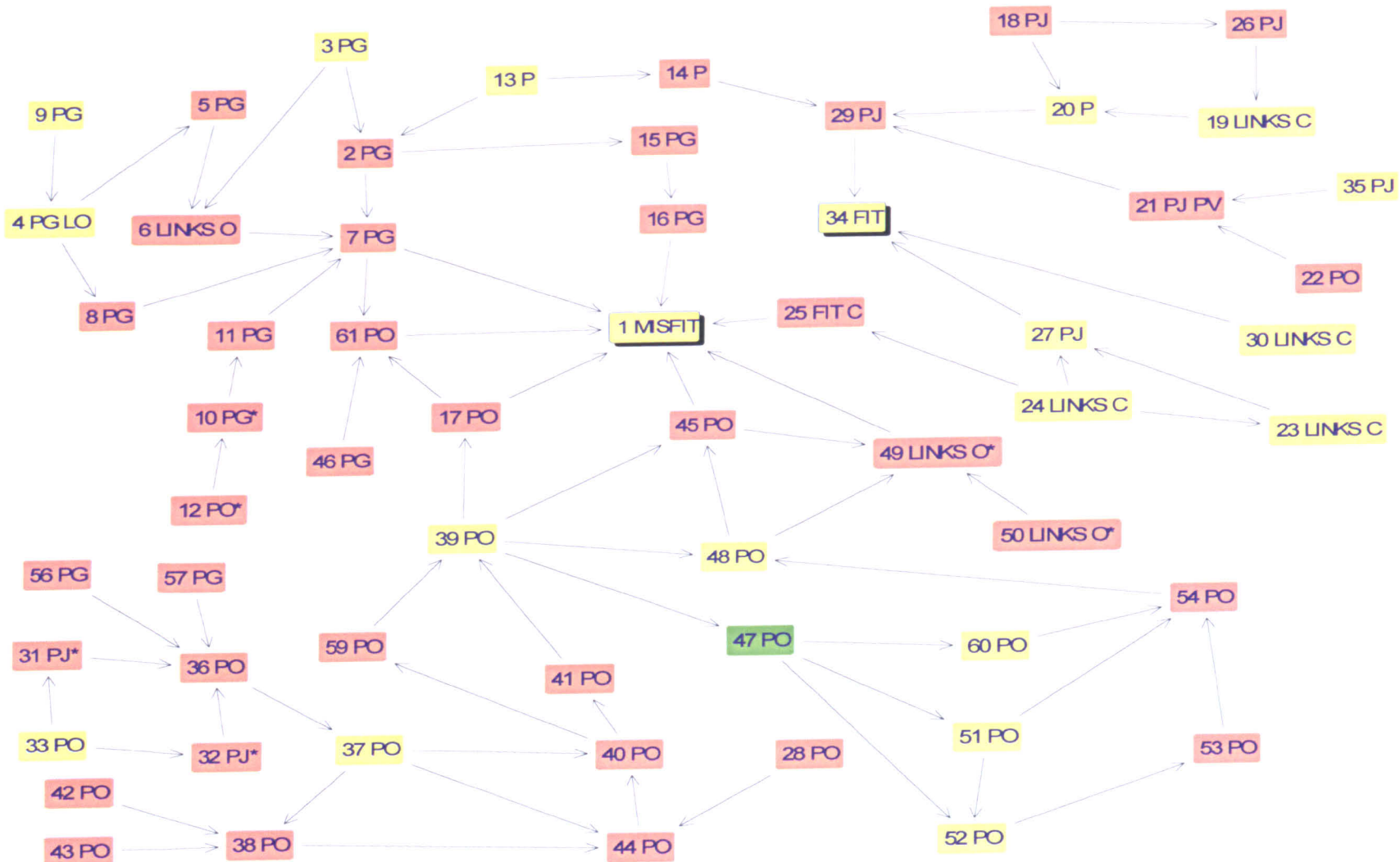
APPENDIX 11

Causal Maps with Codes

Key for all maps:



Participant 1



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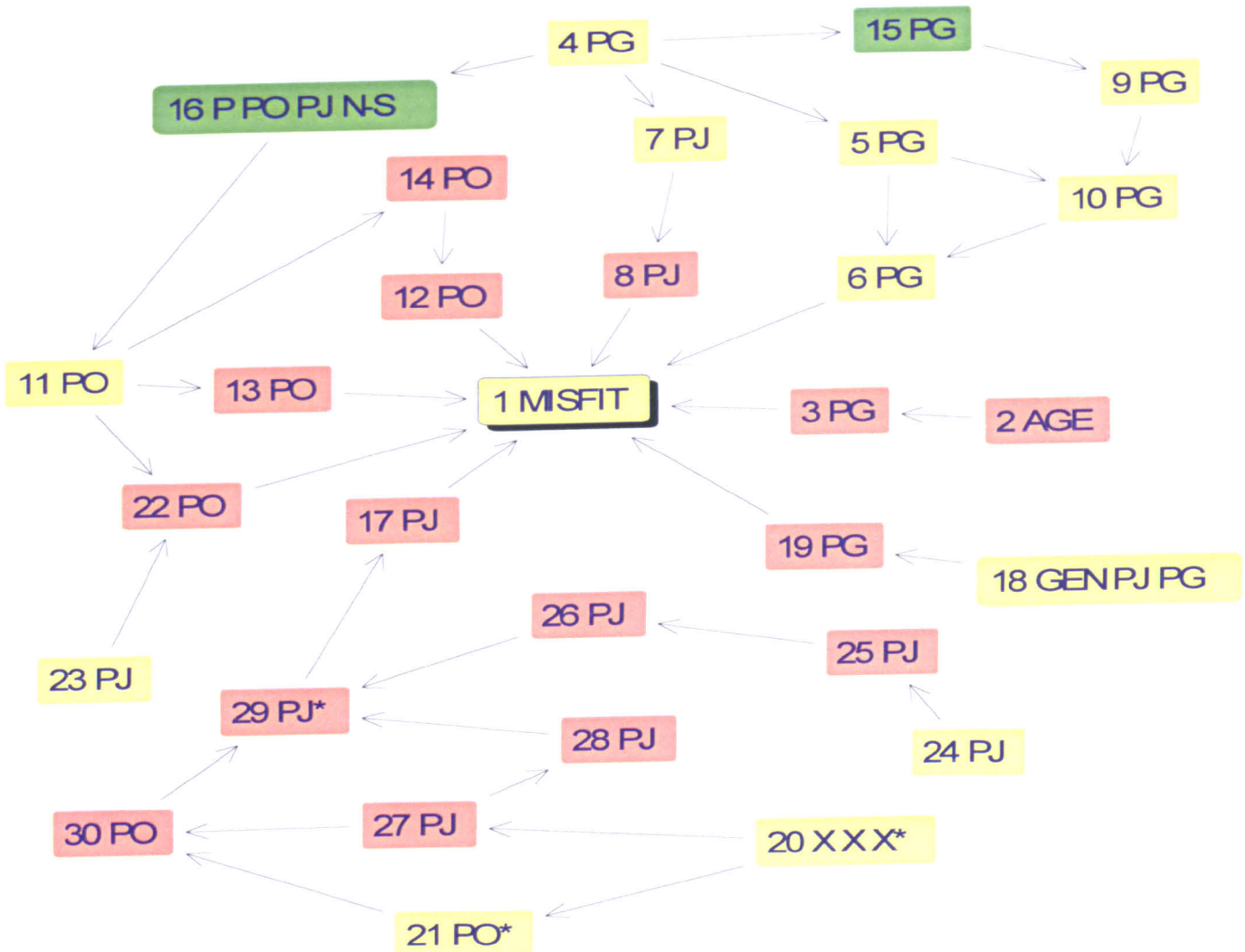

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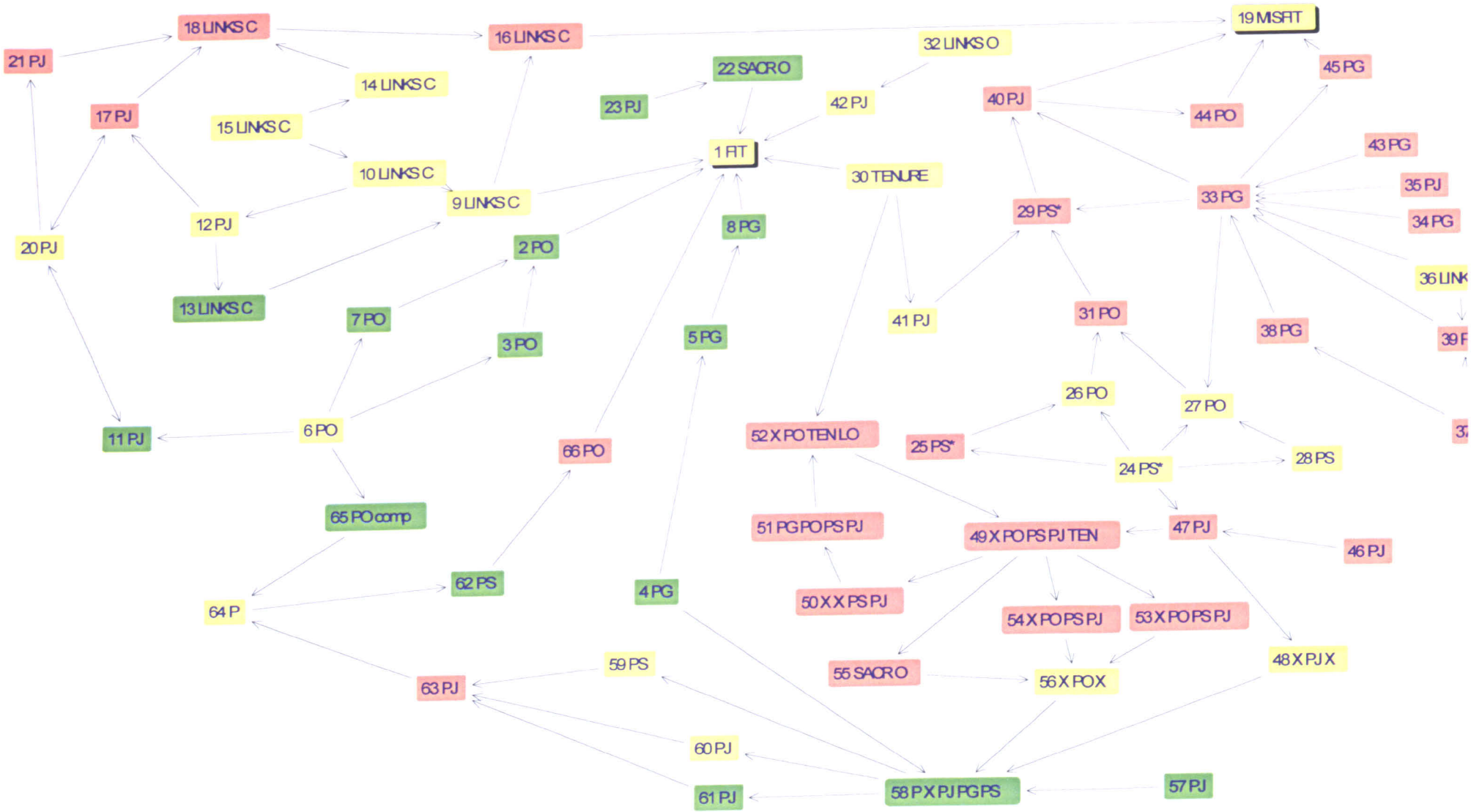

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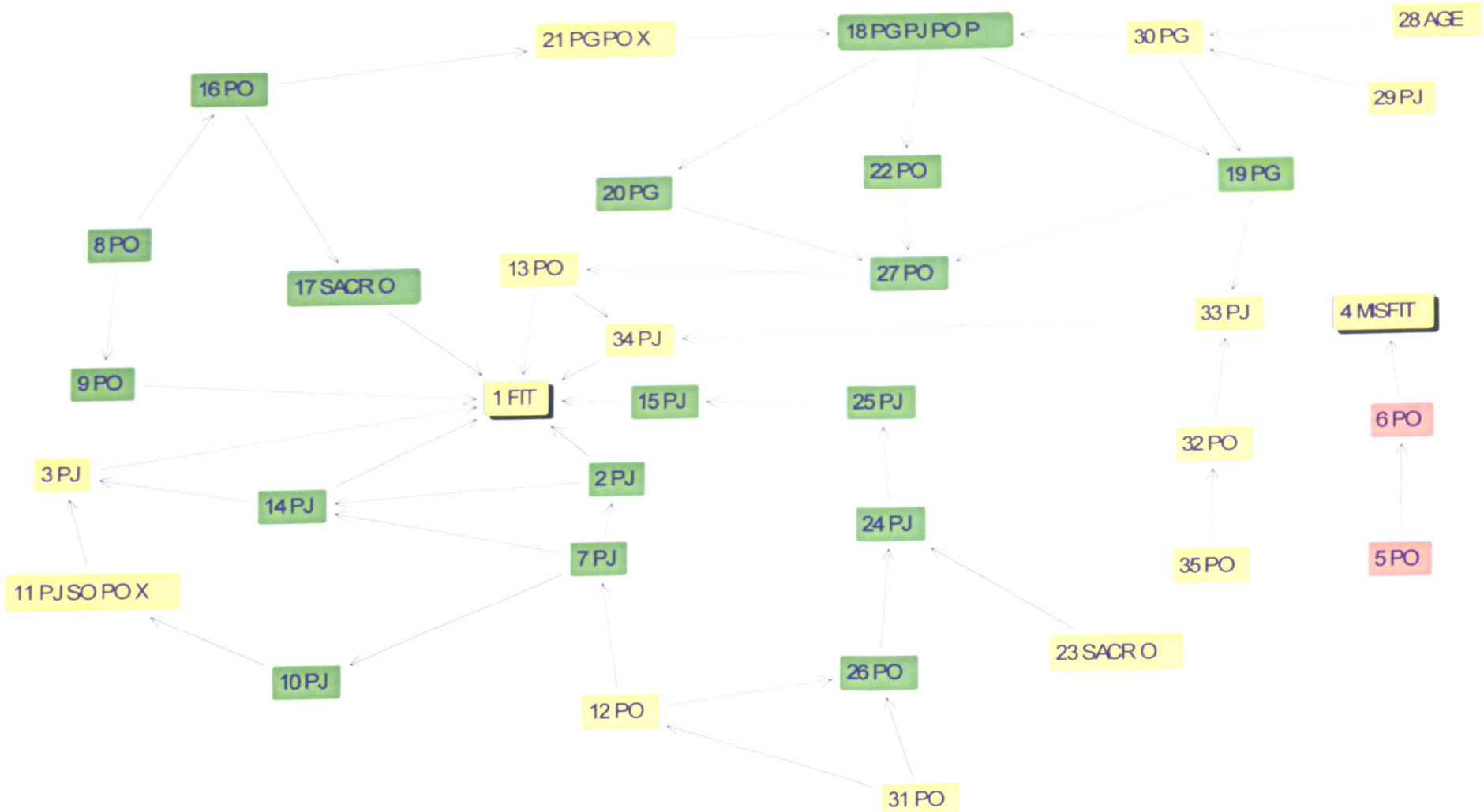

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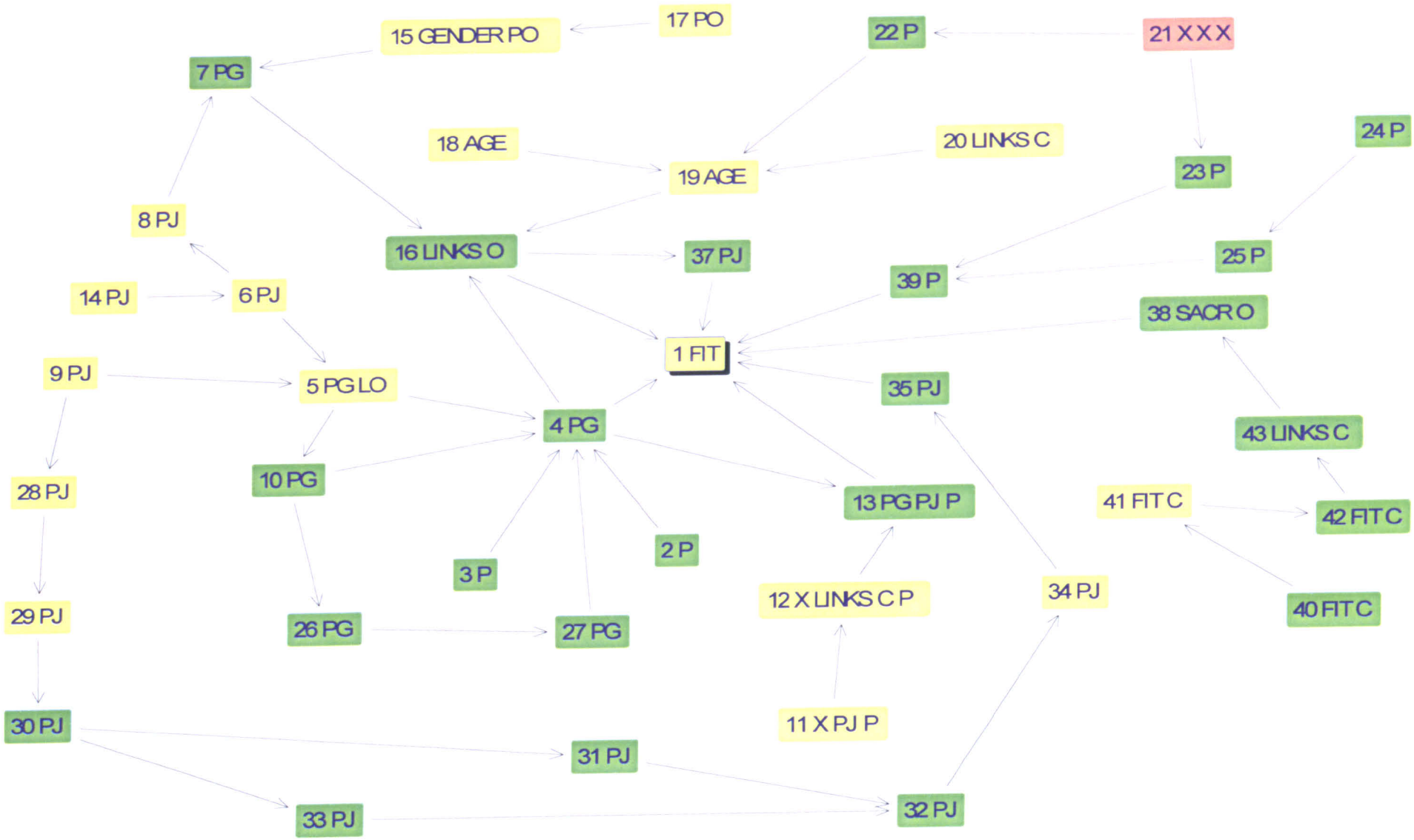

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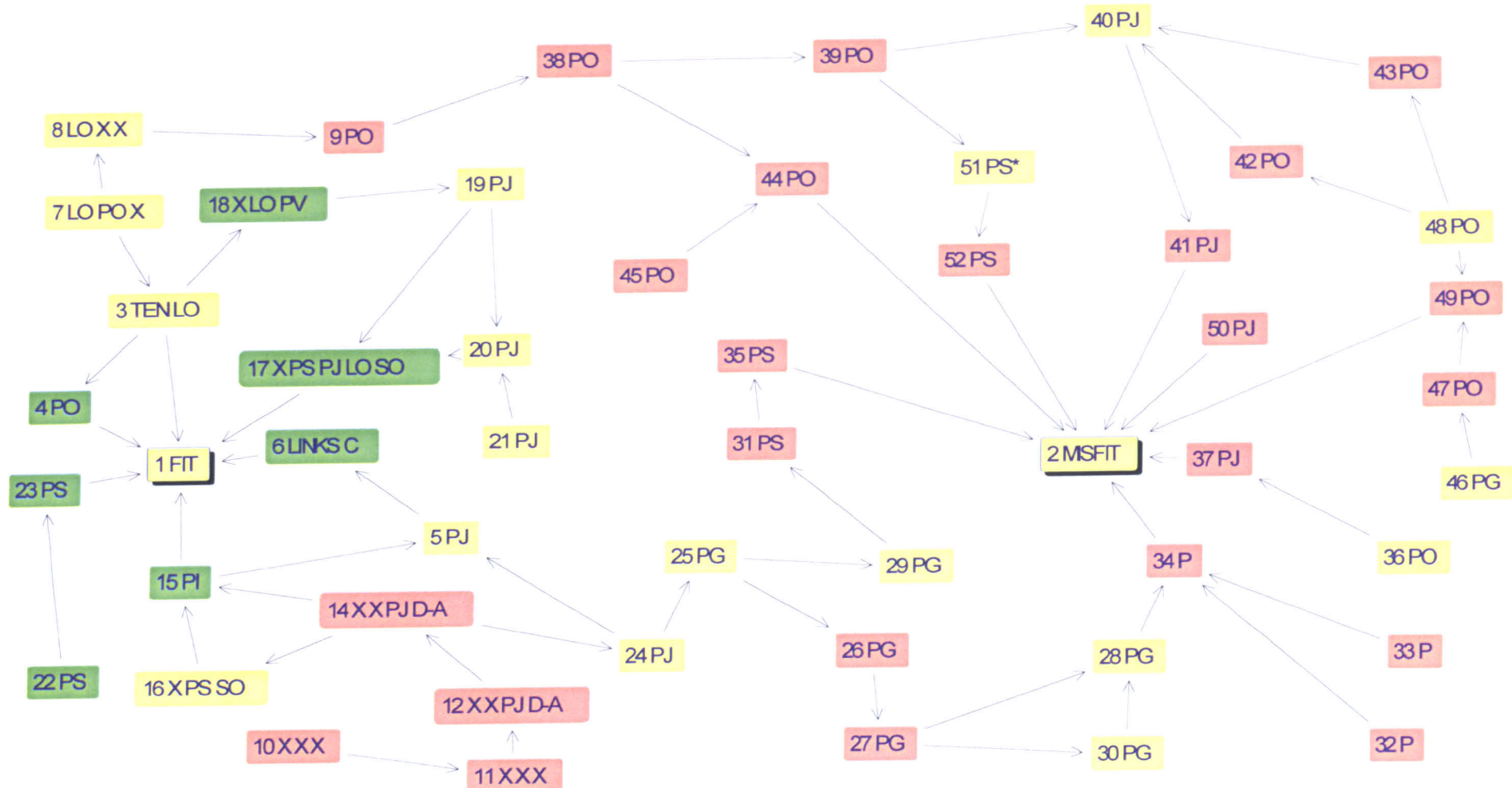

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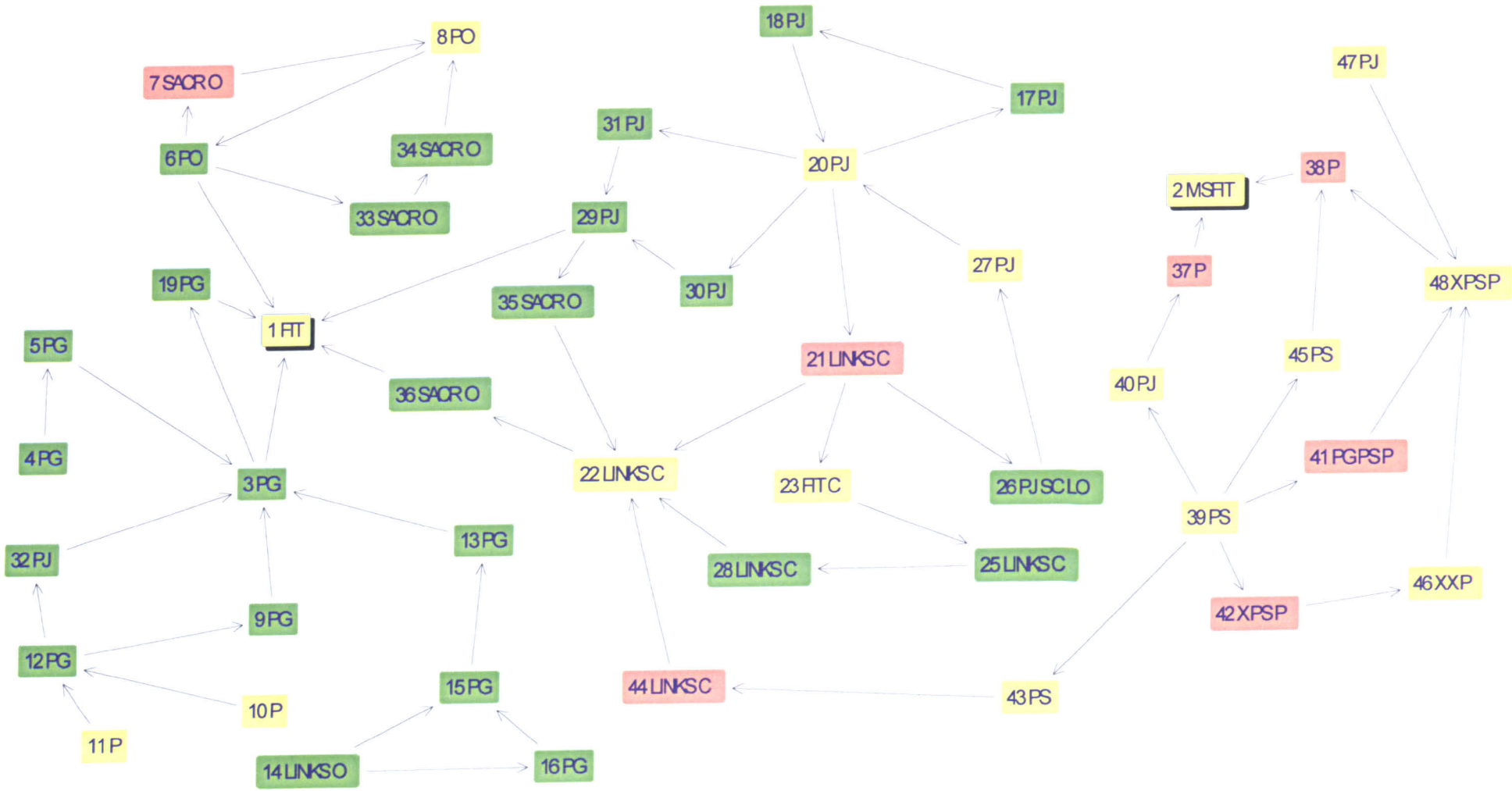

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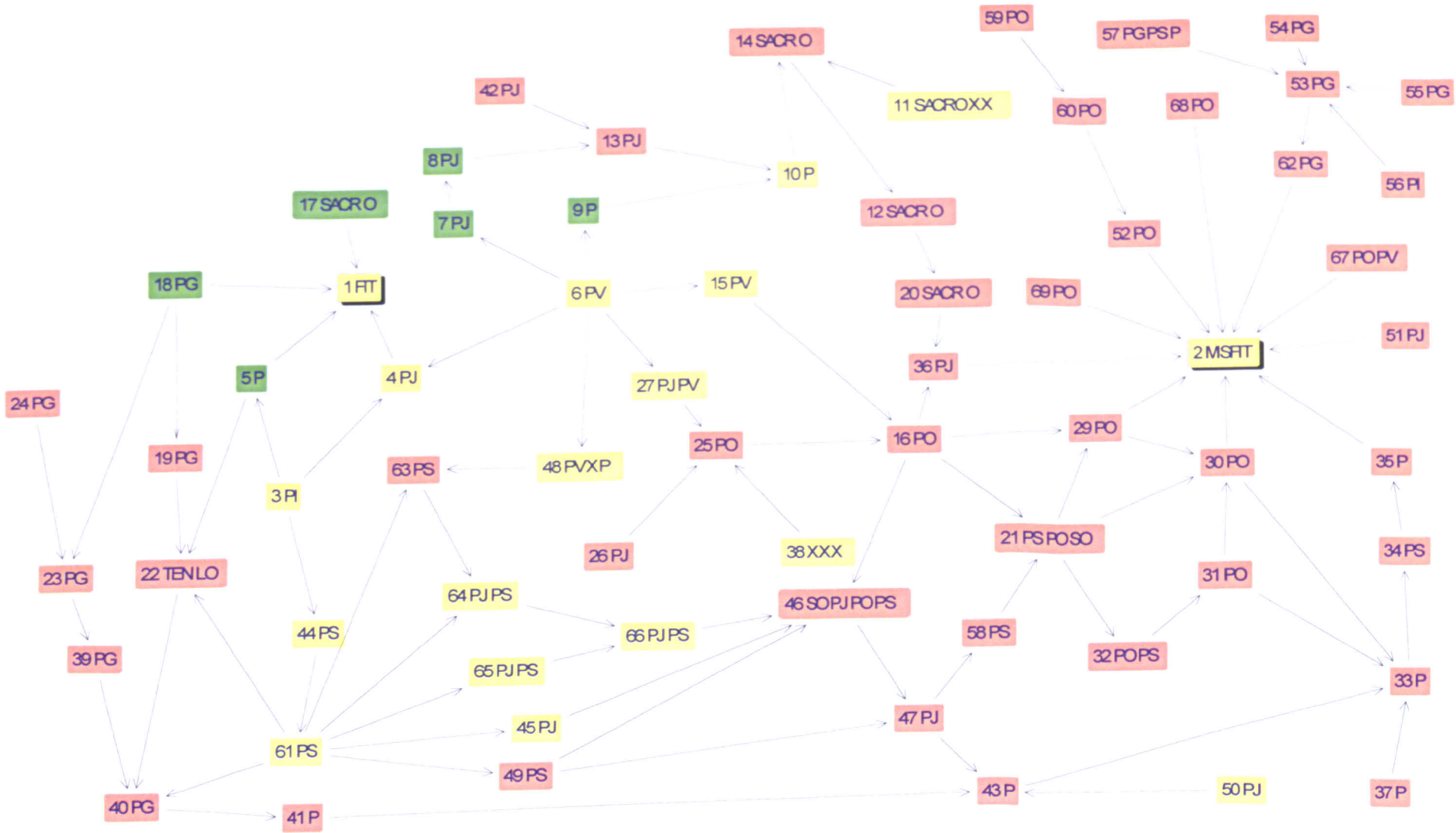

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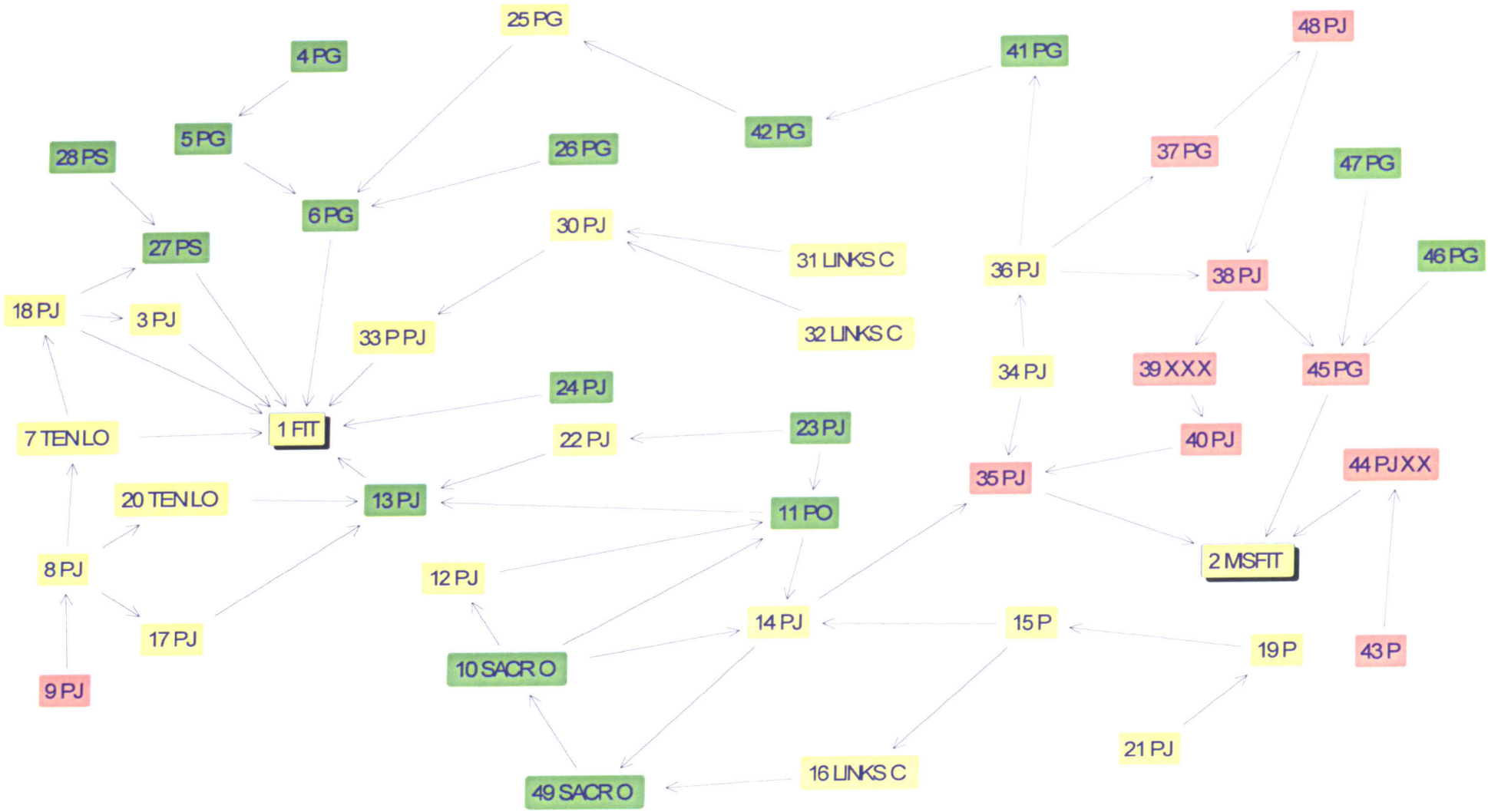

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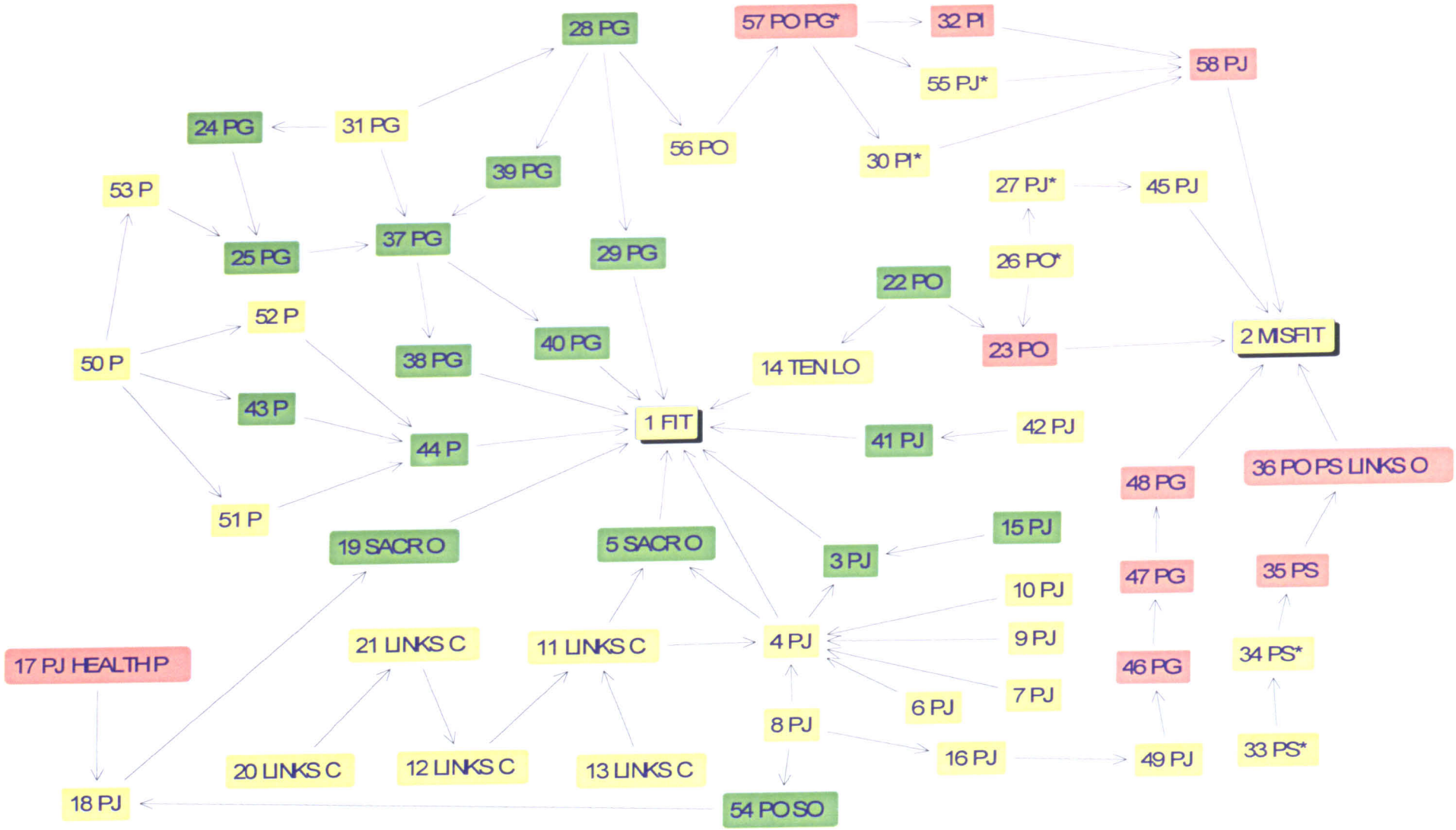

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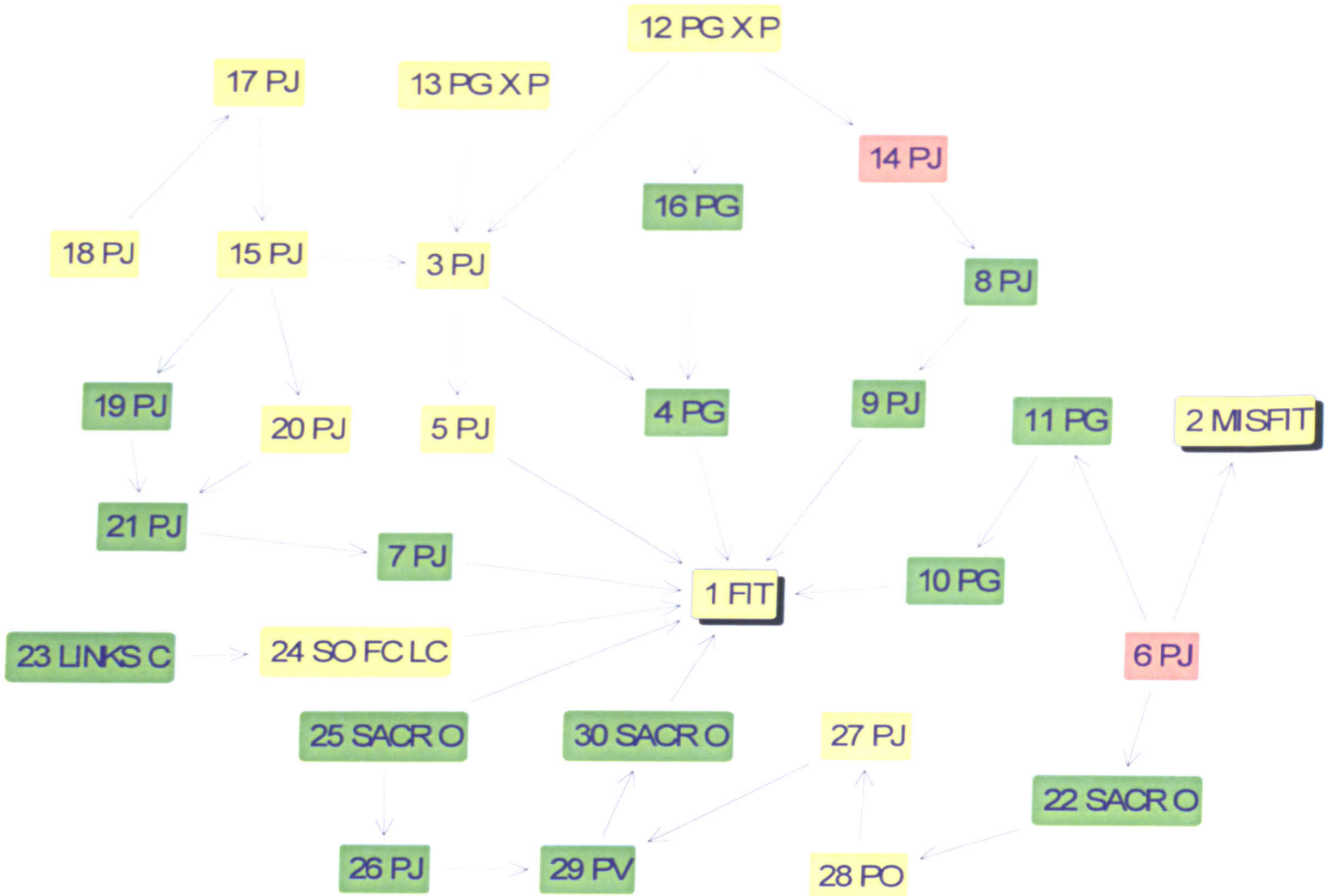

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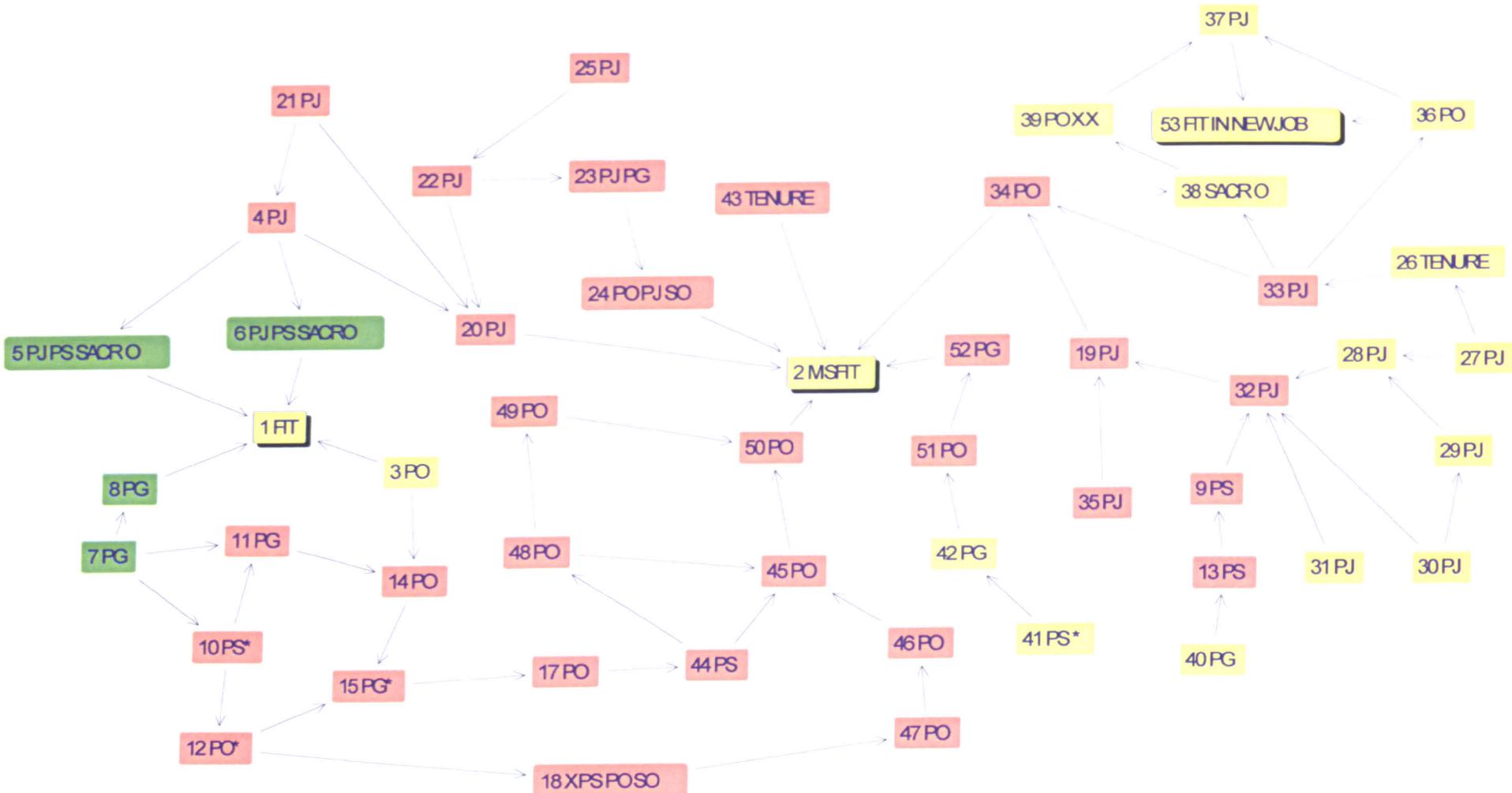

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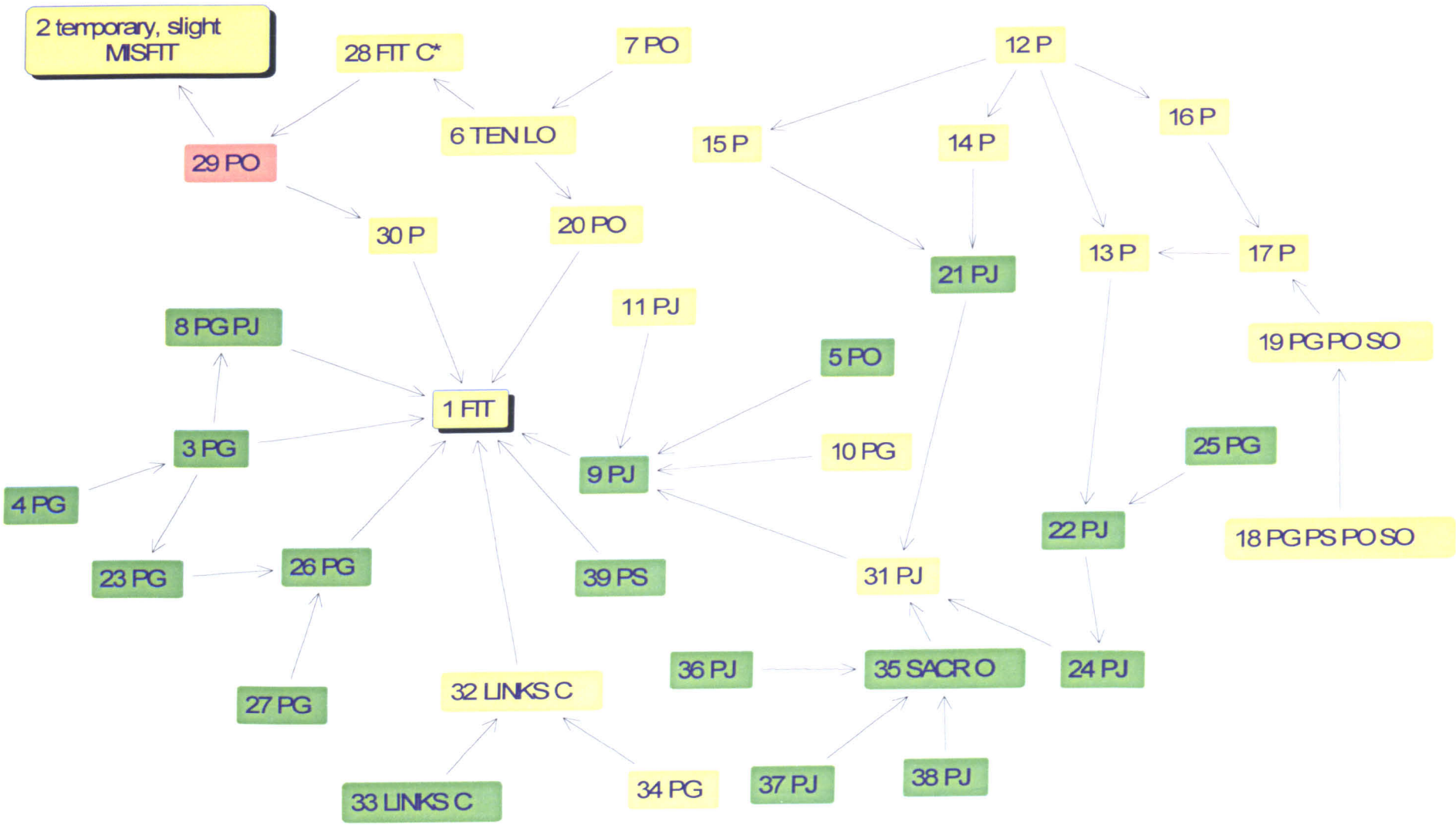

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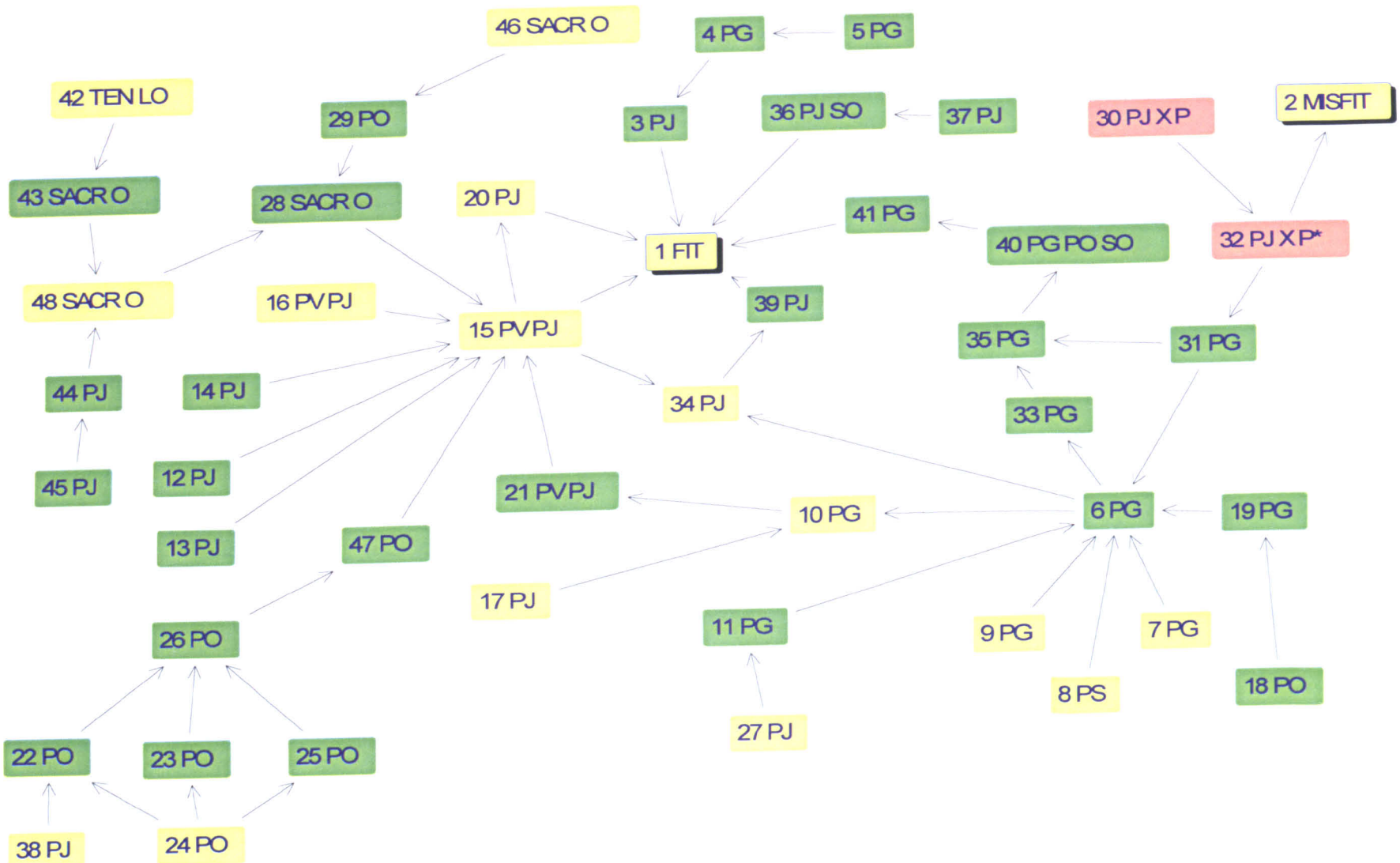

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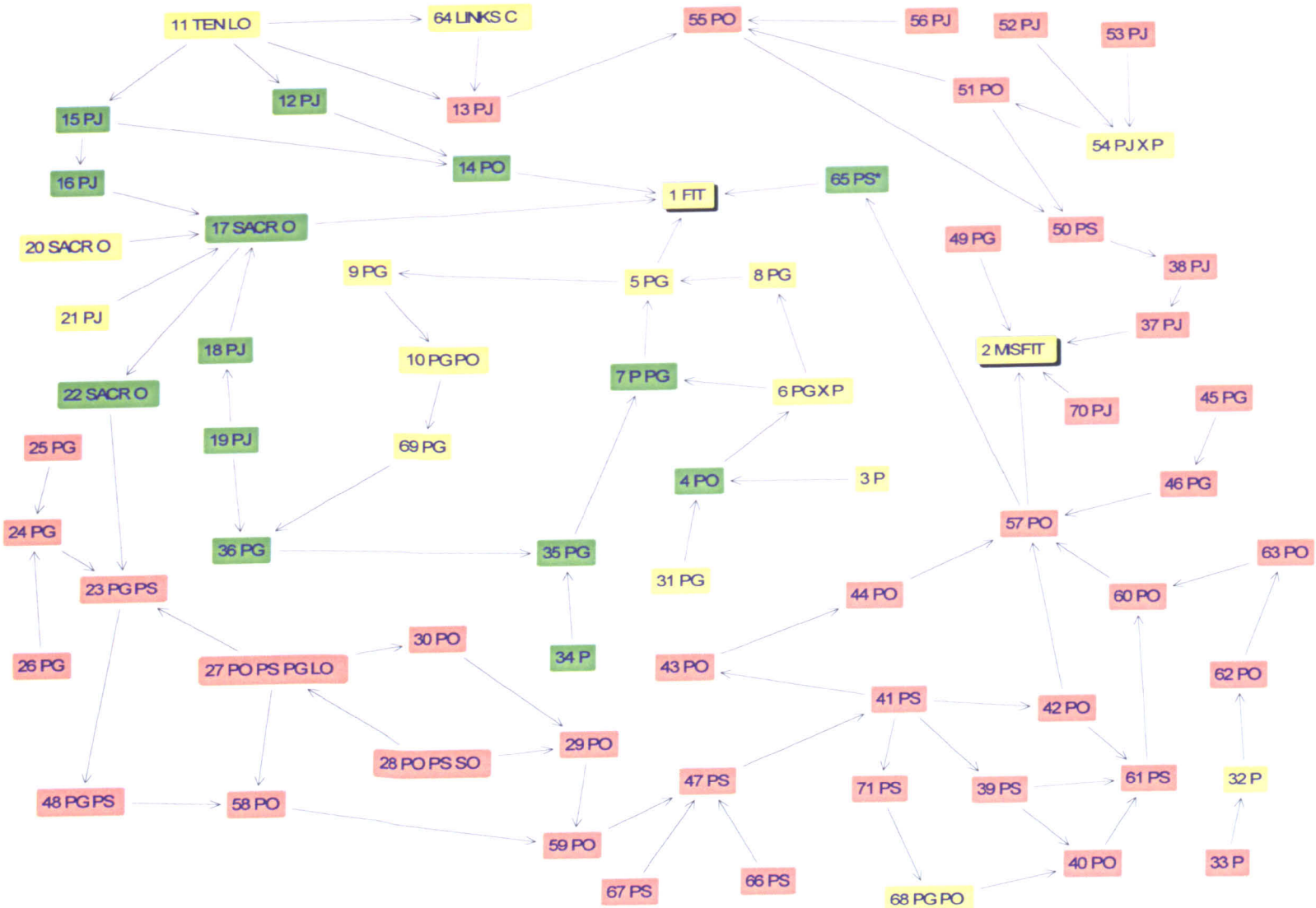
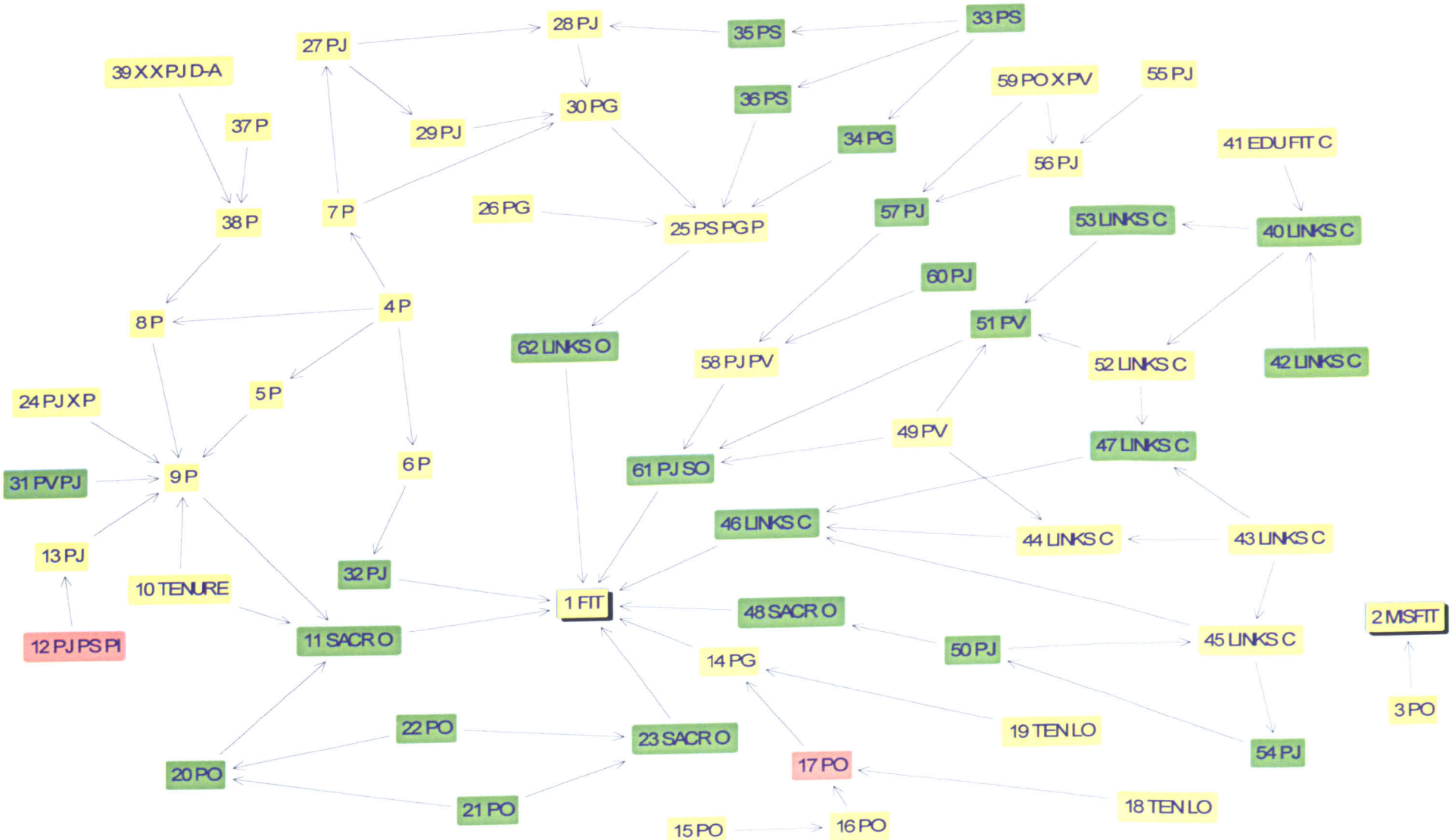


Participant 16



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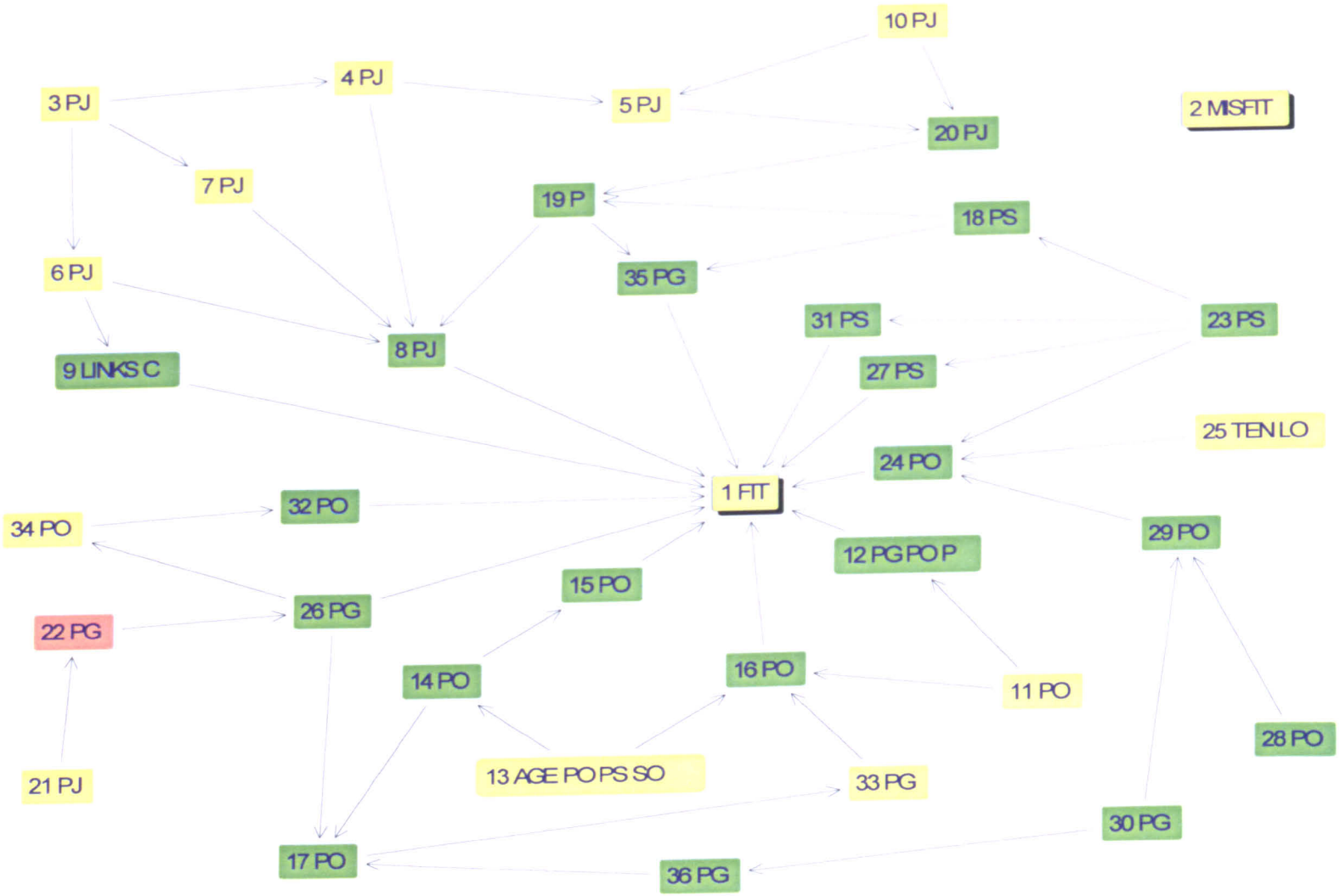

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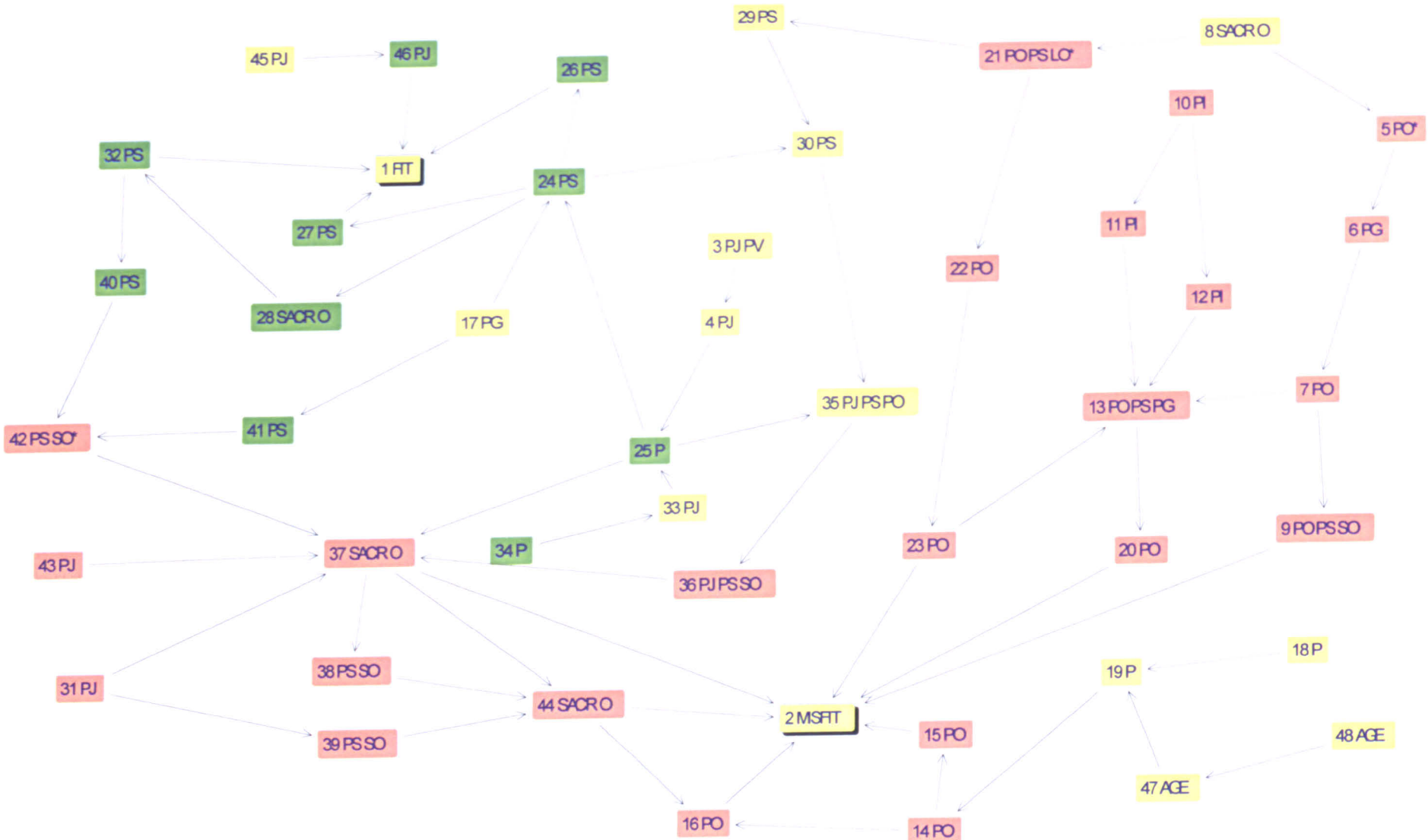

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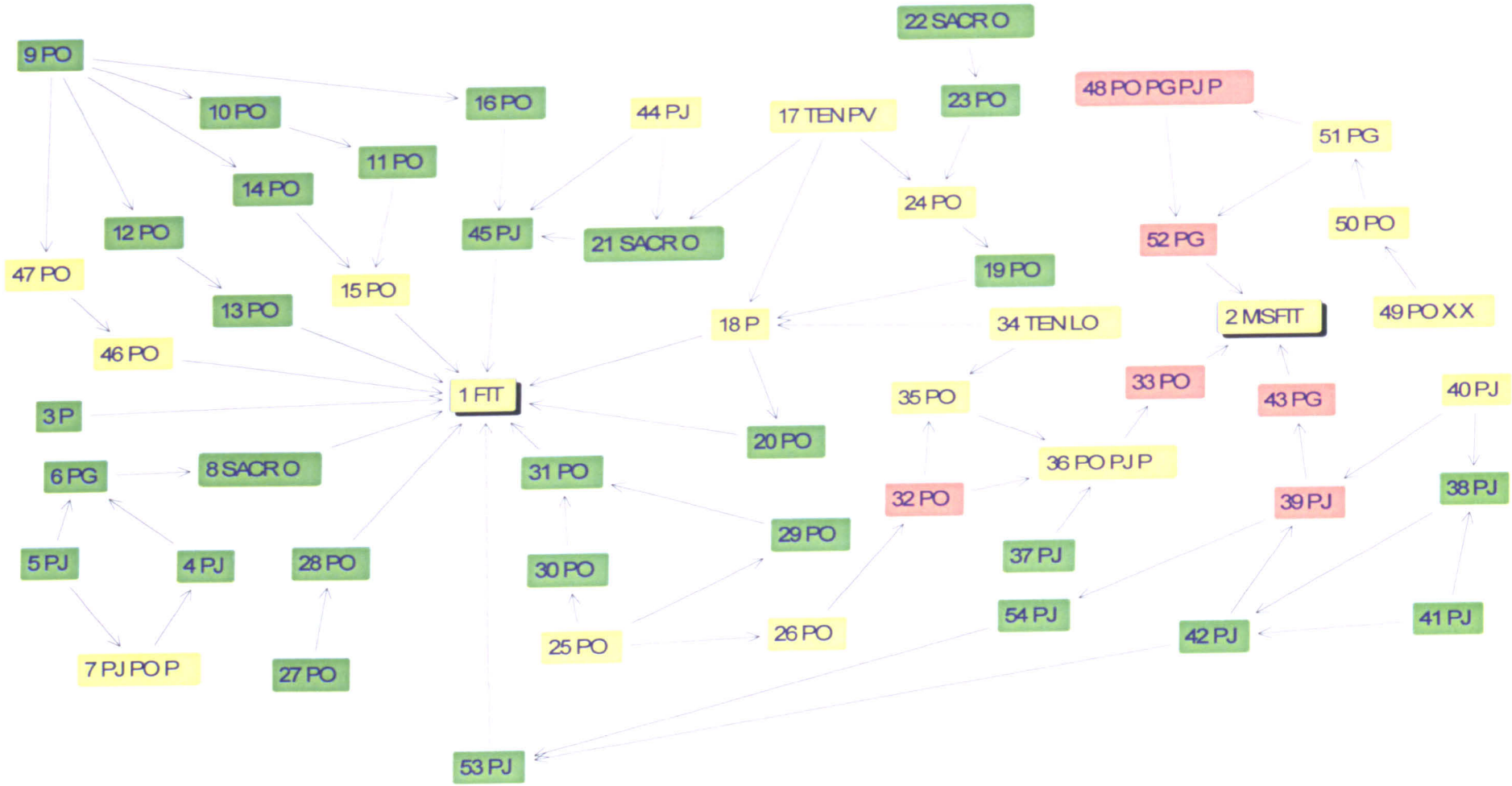

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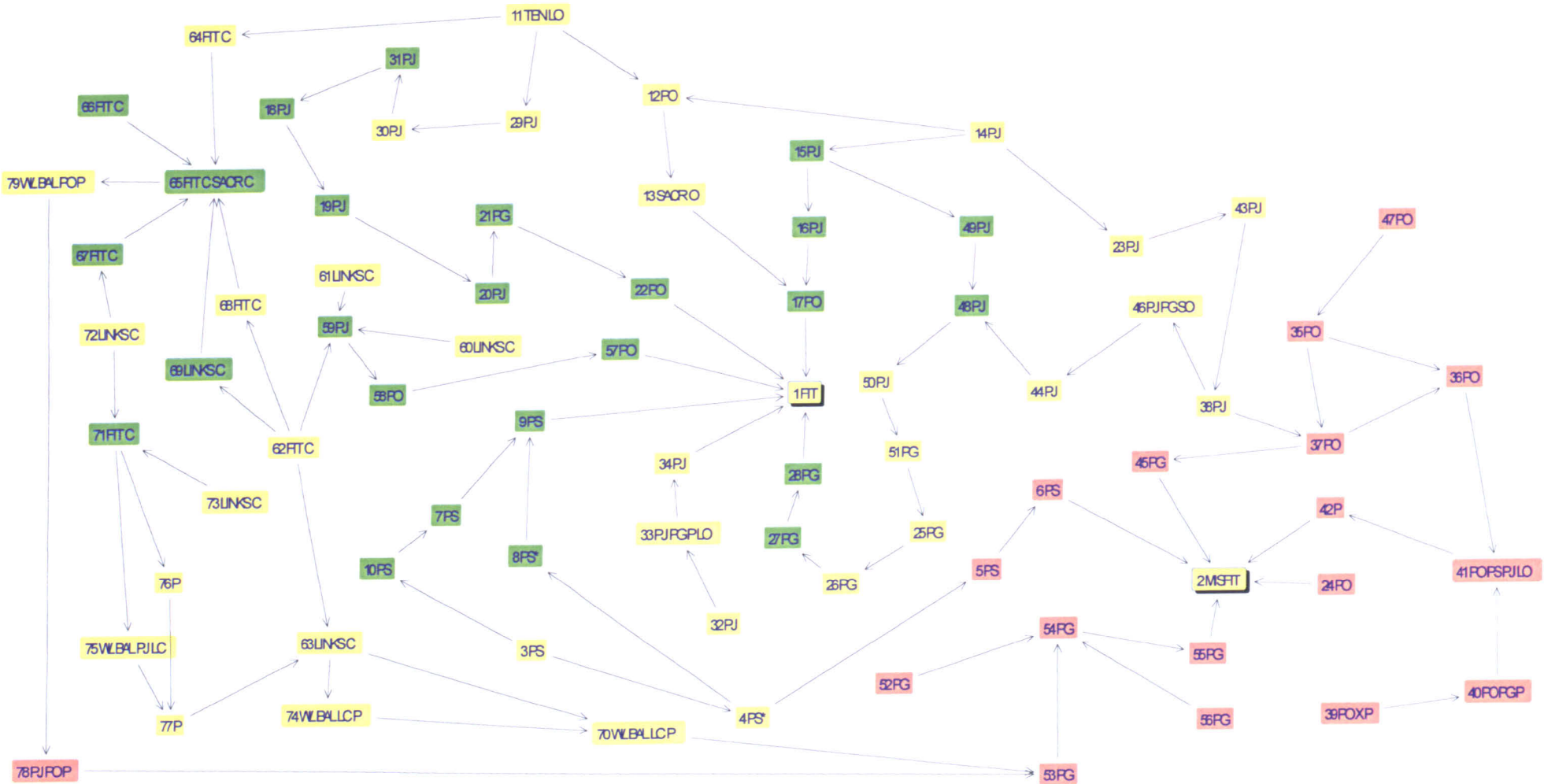

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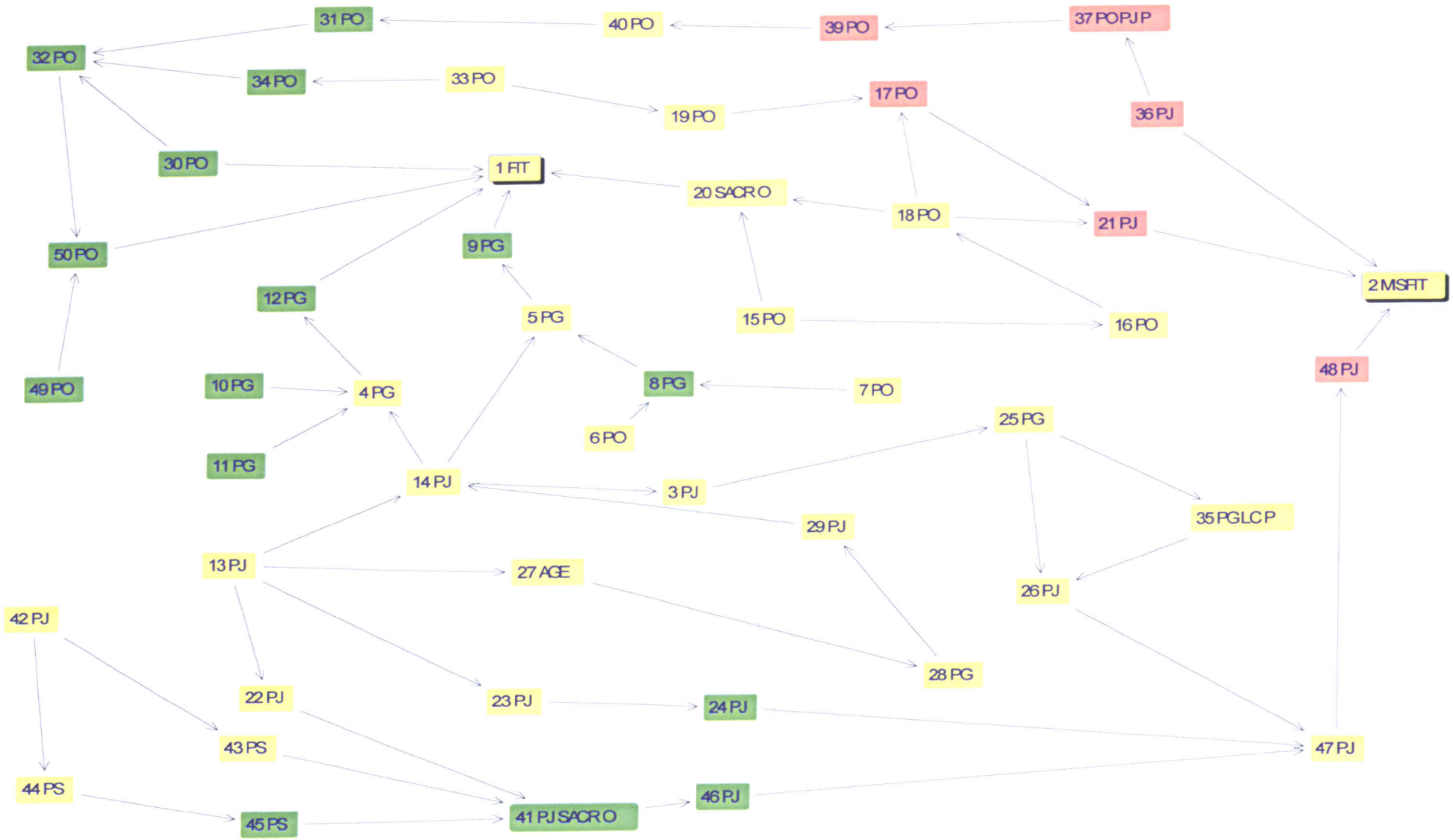

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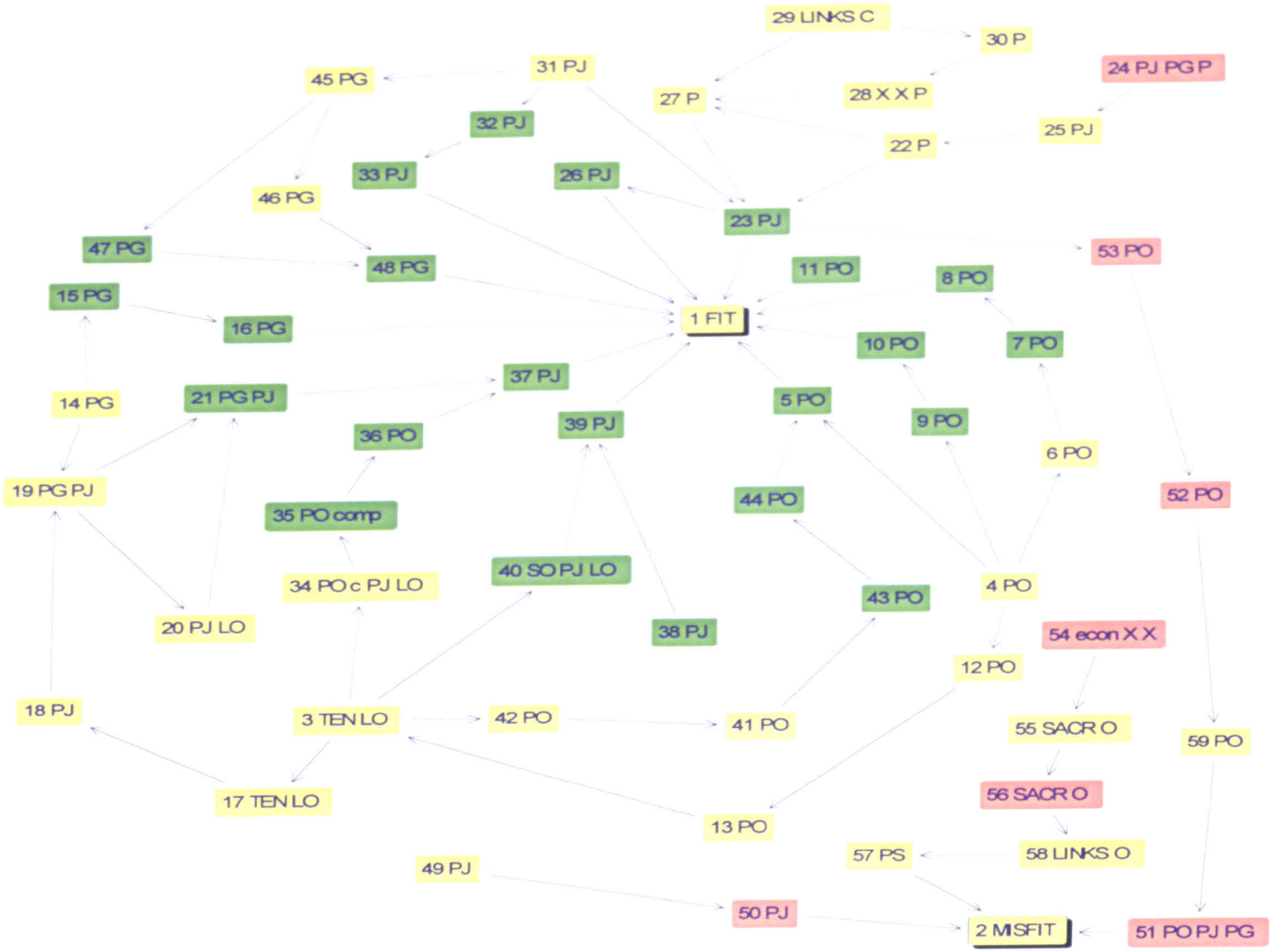

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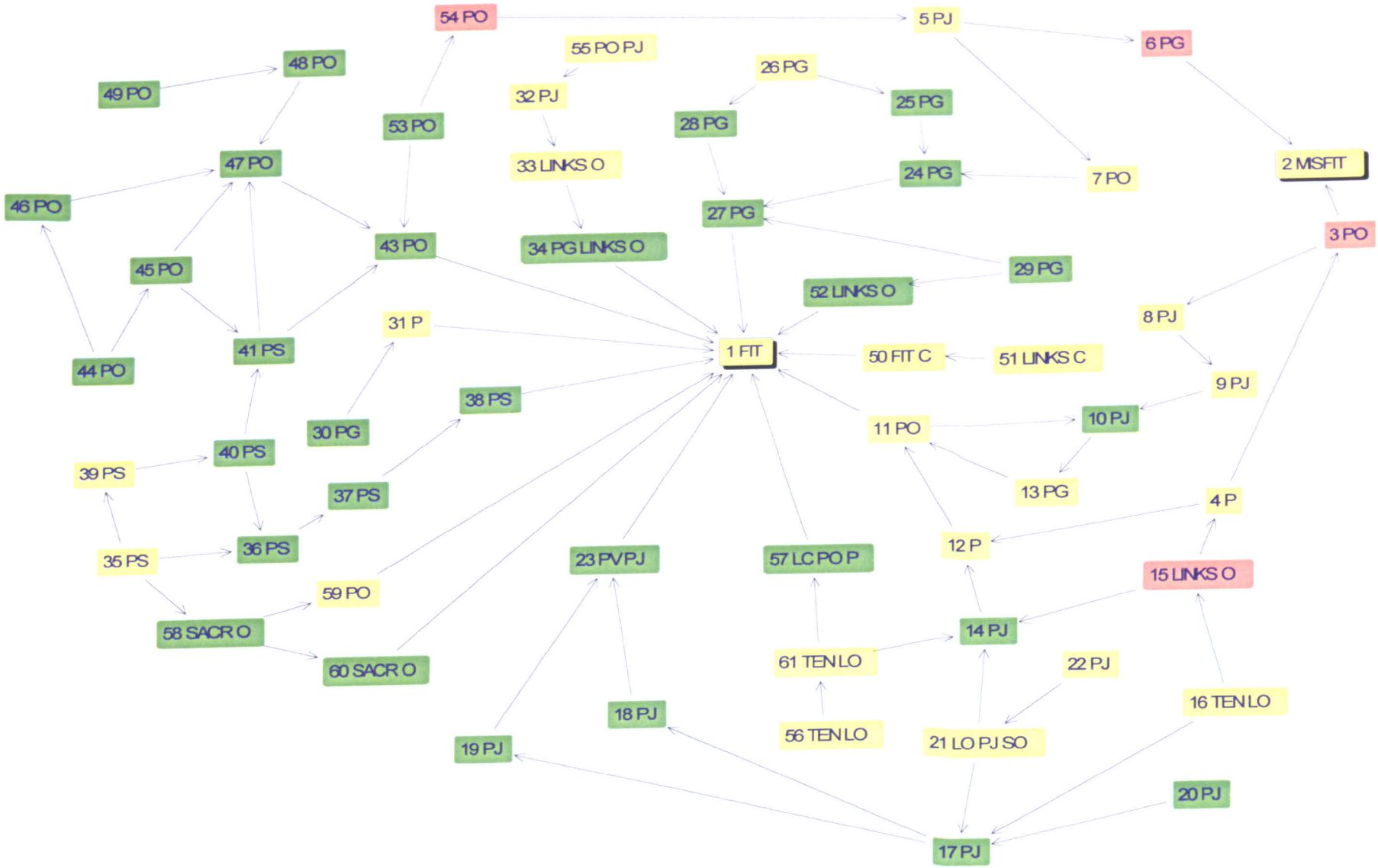

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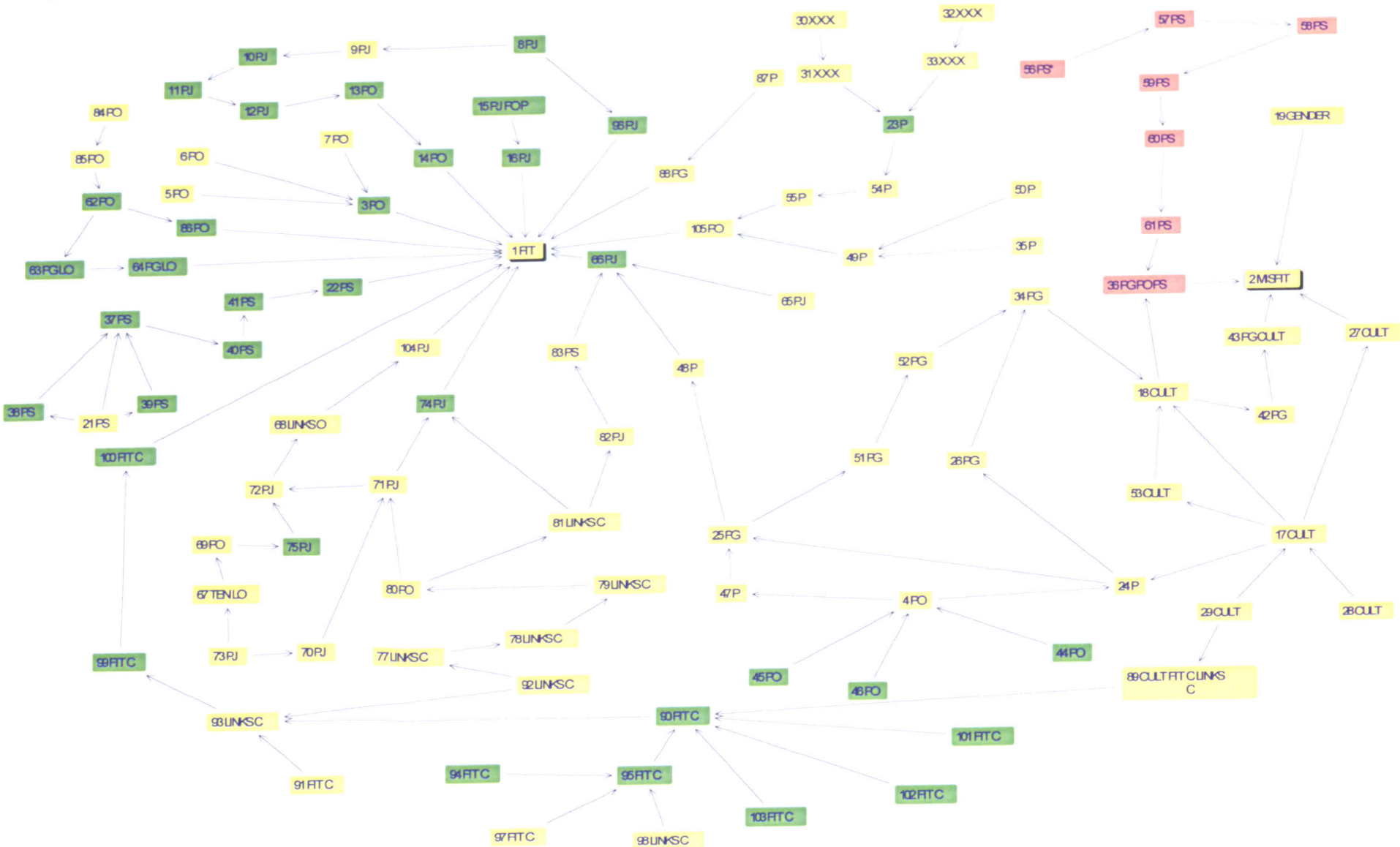

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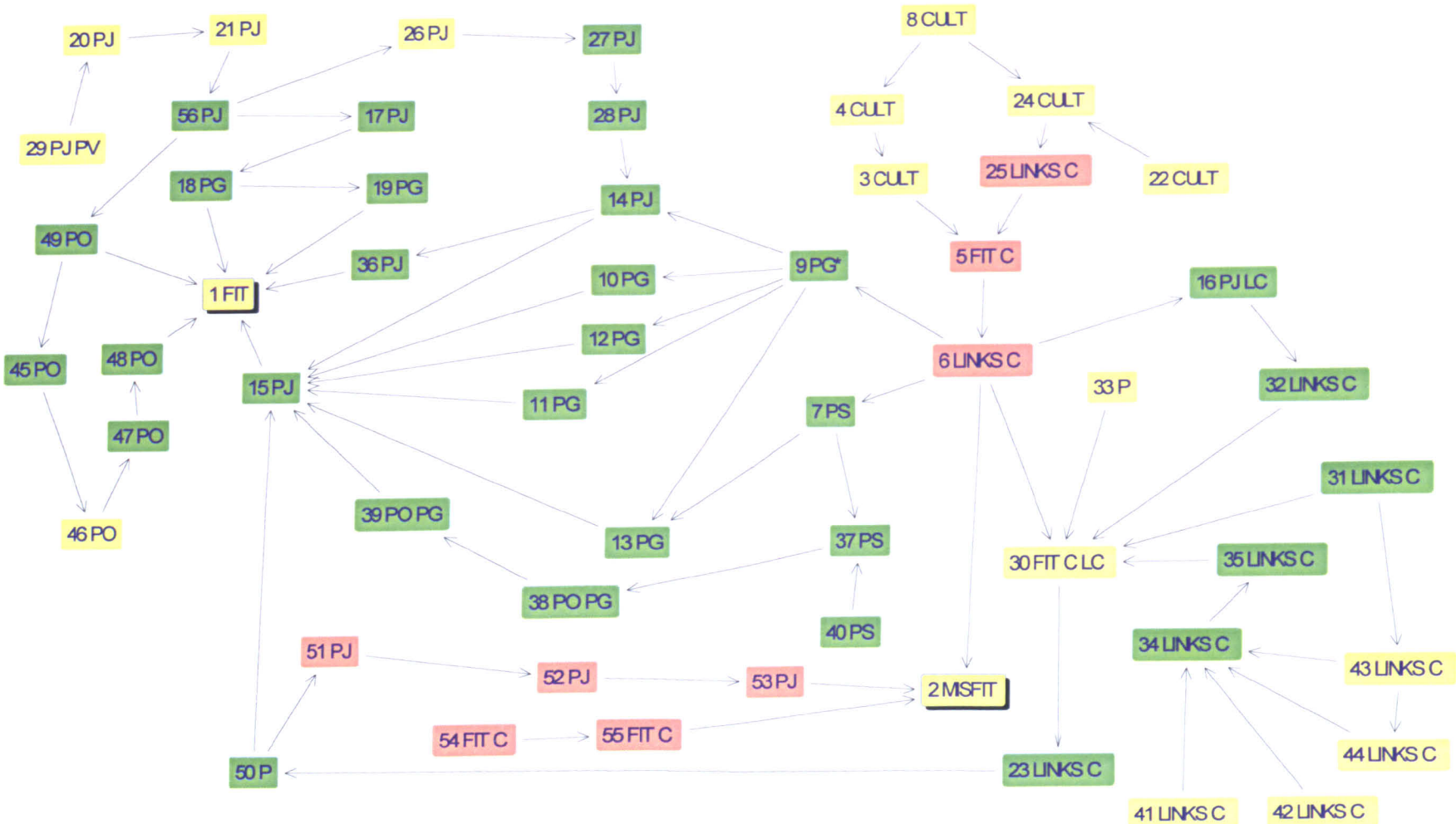

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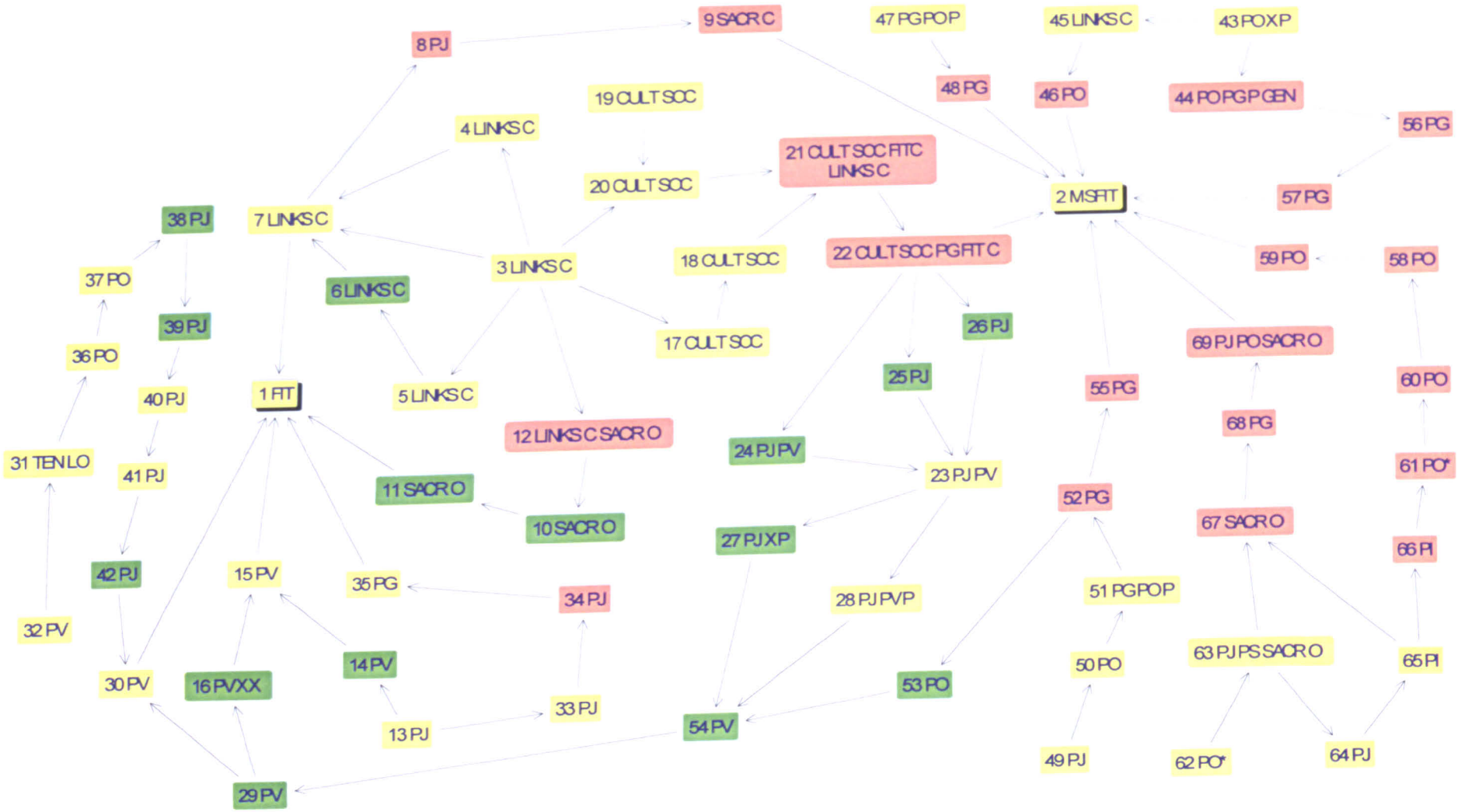

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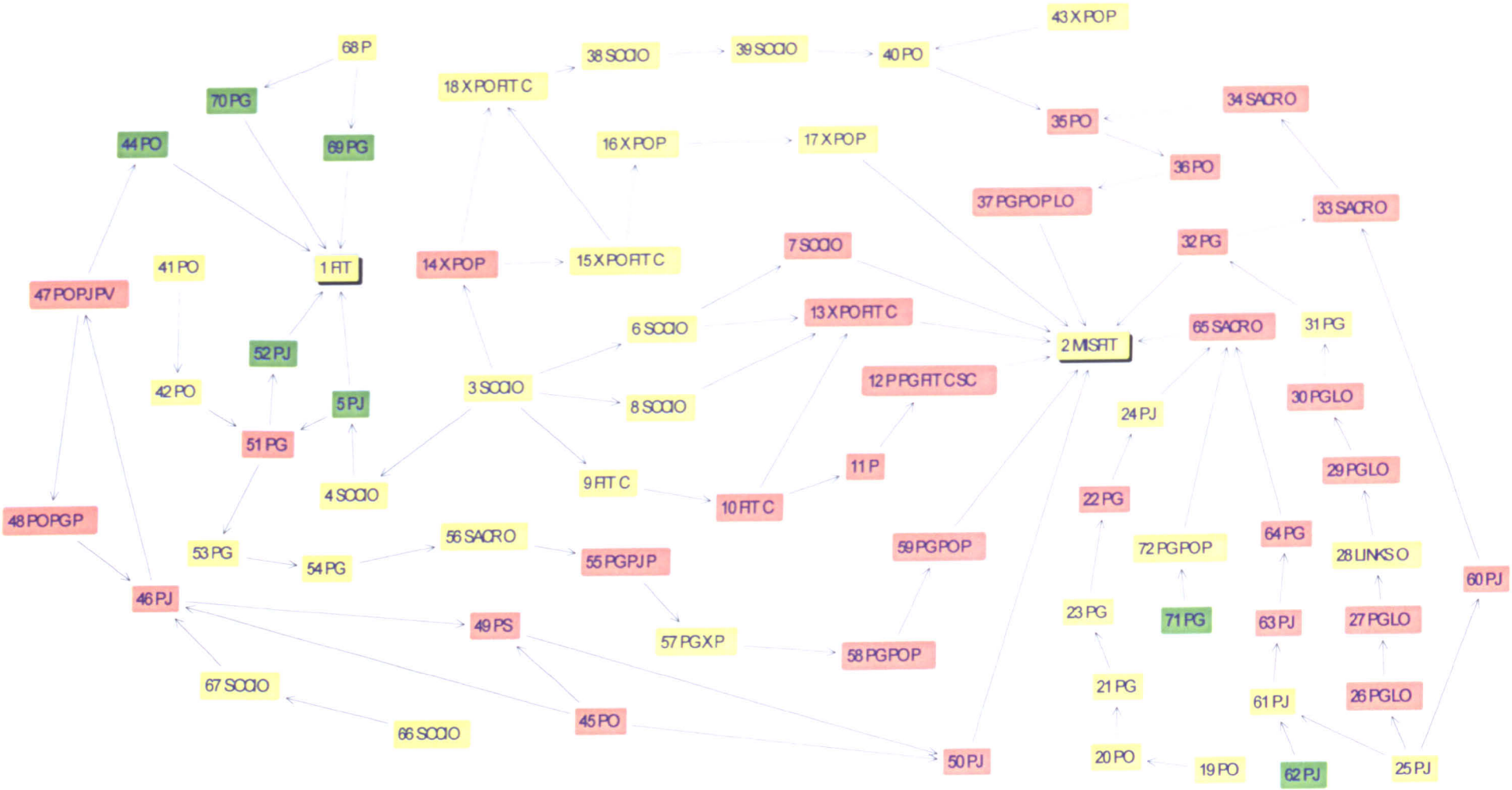

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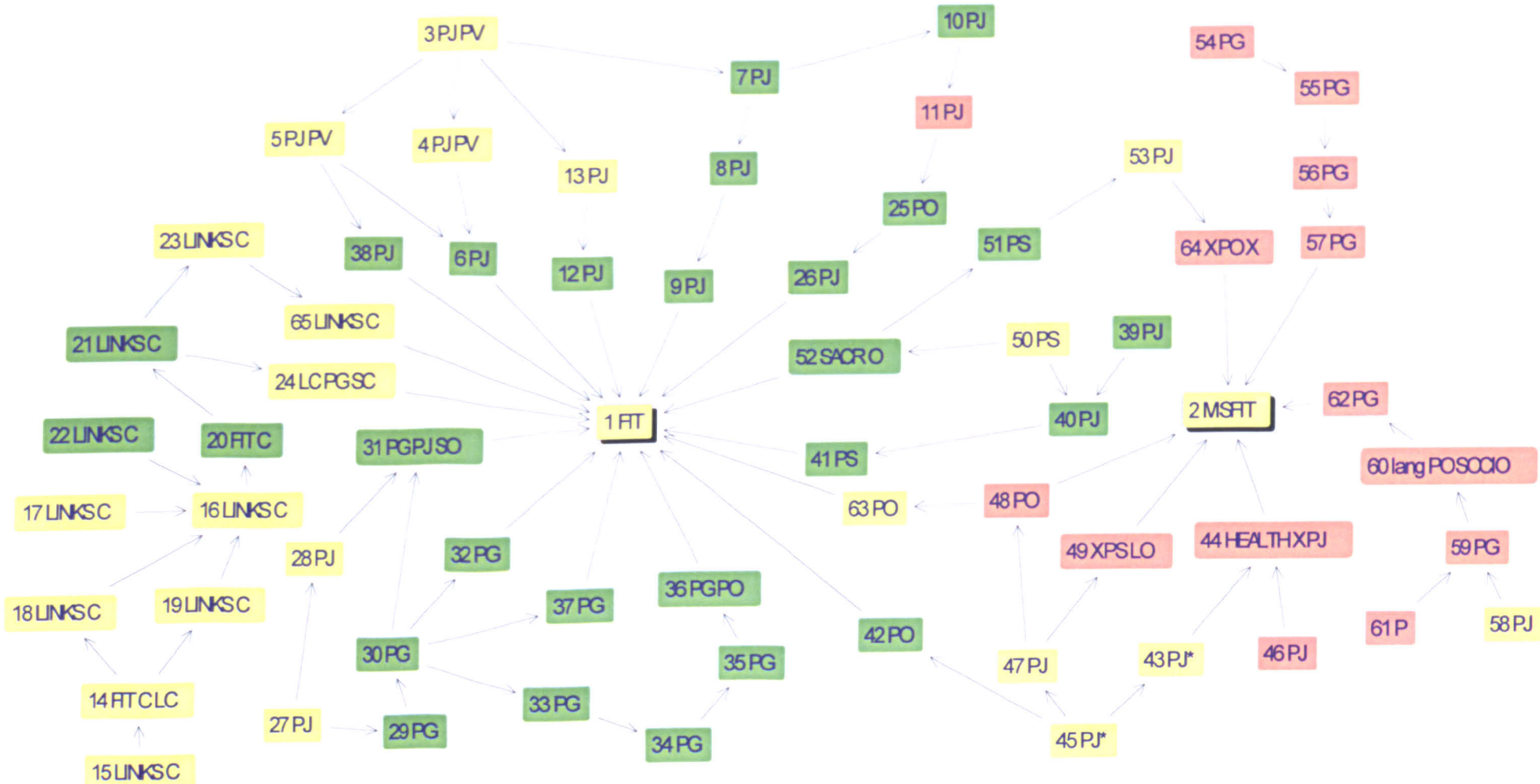

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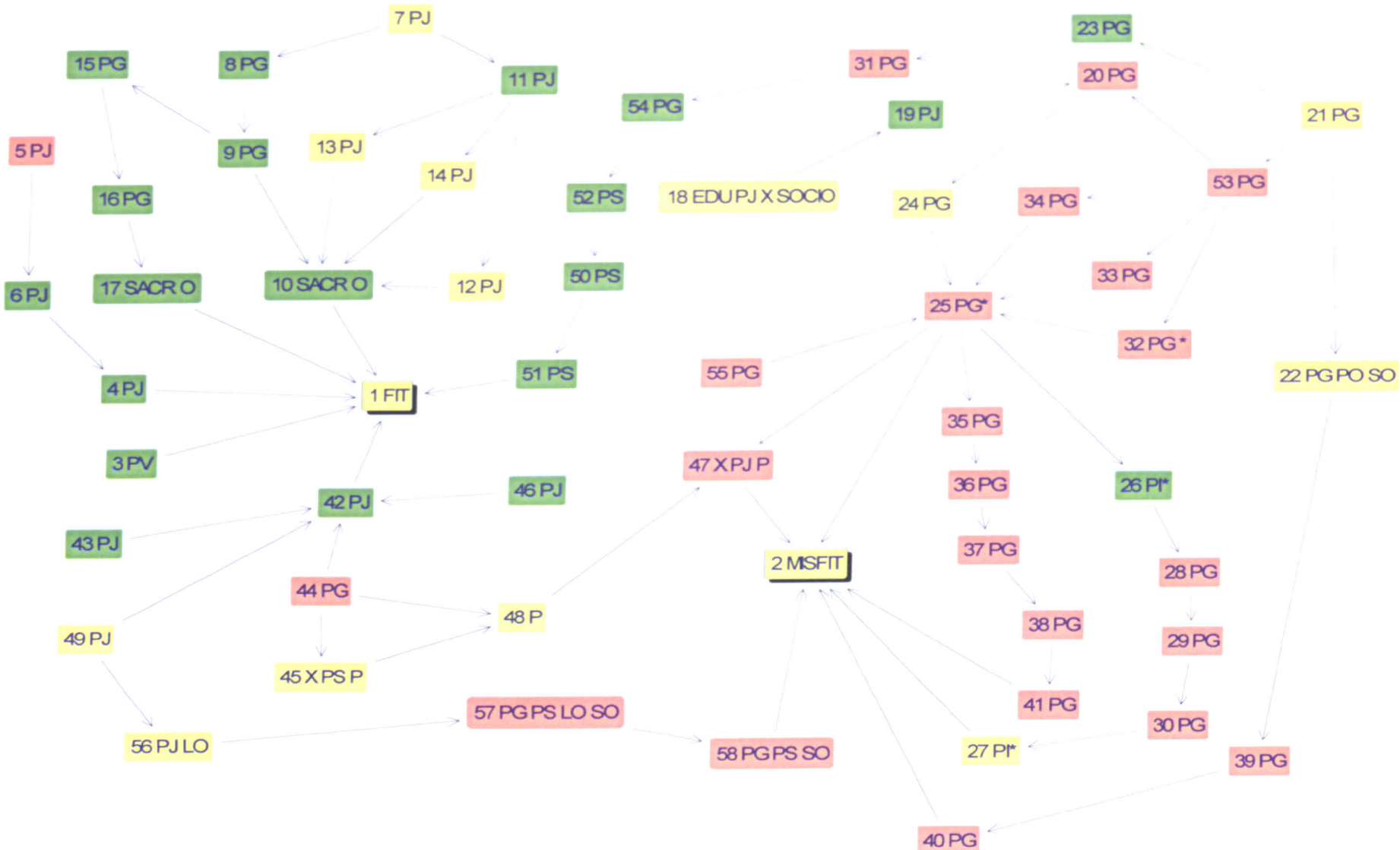

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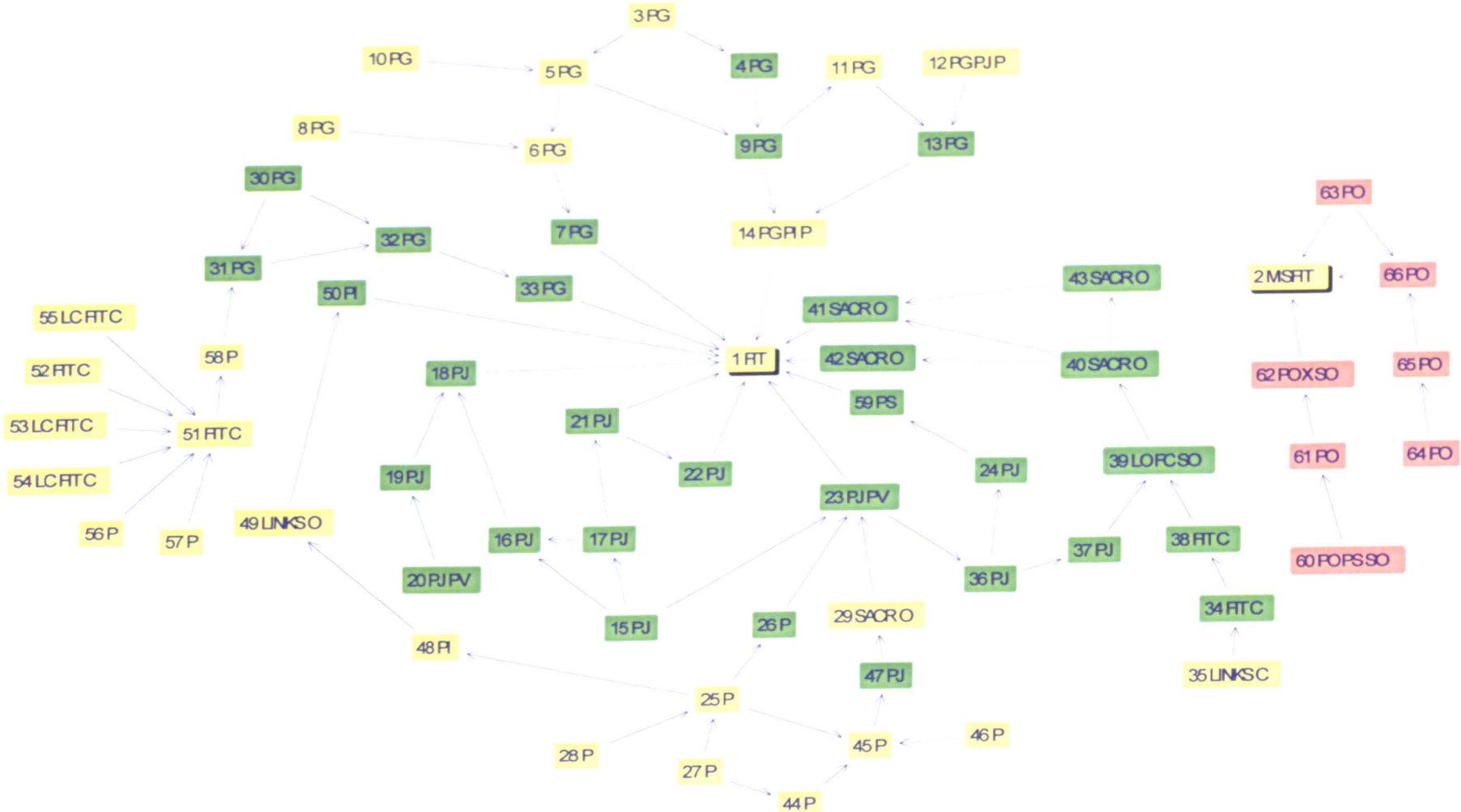

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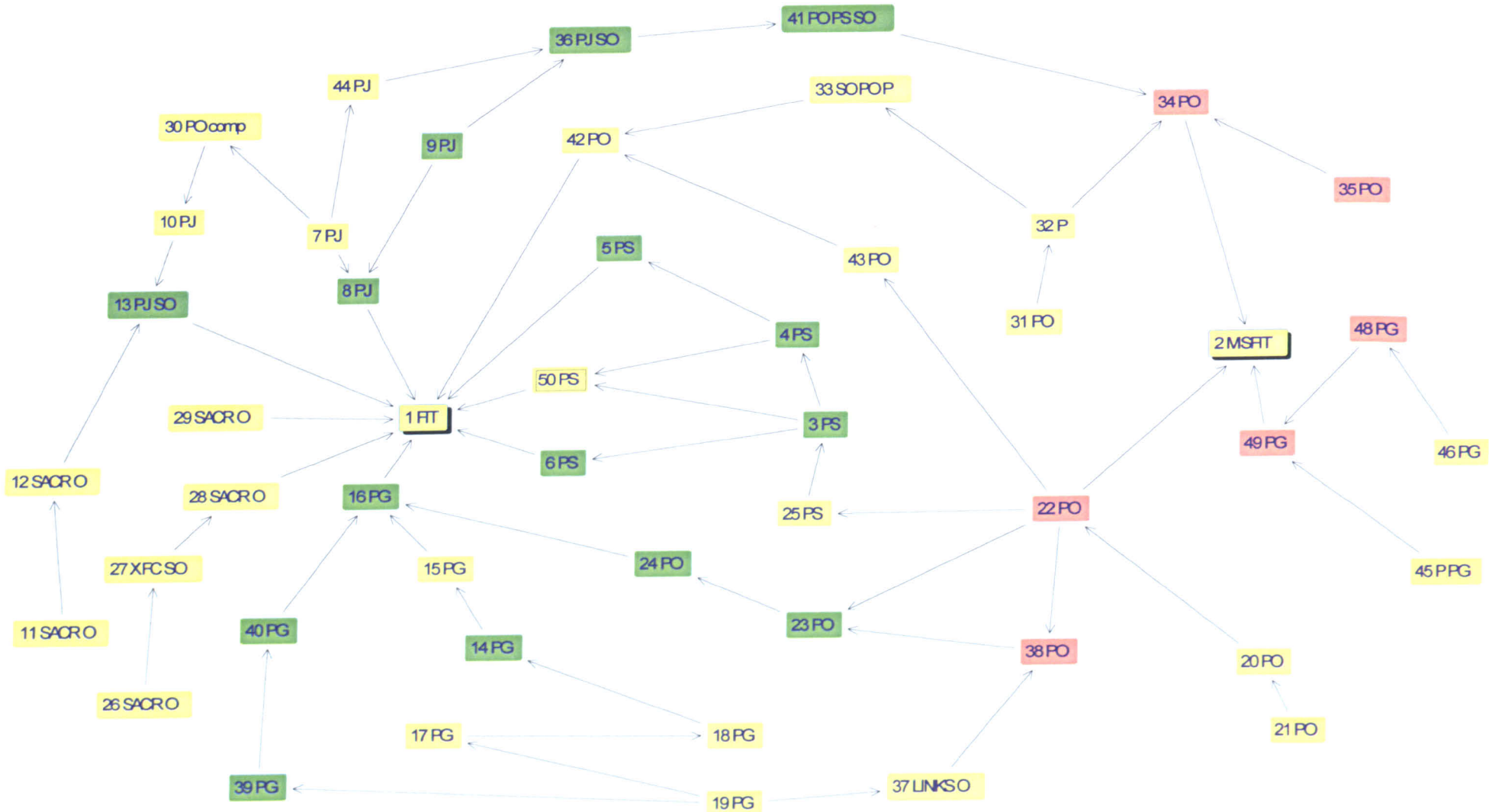

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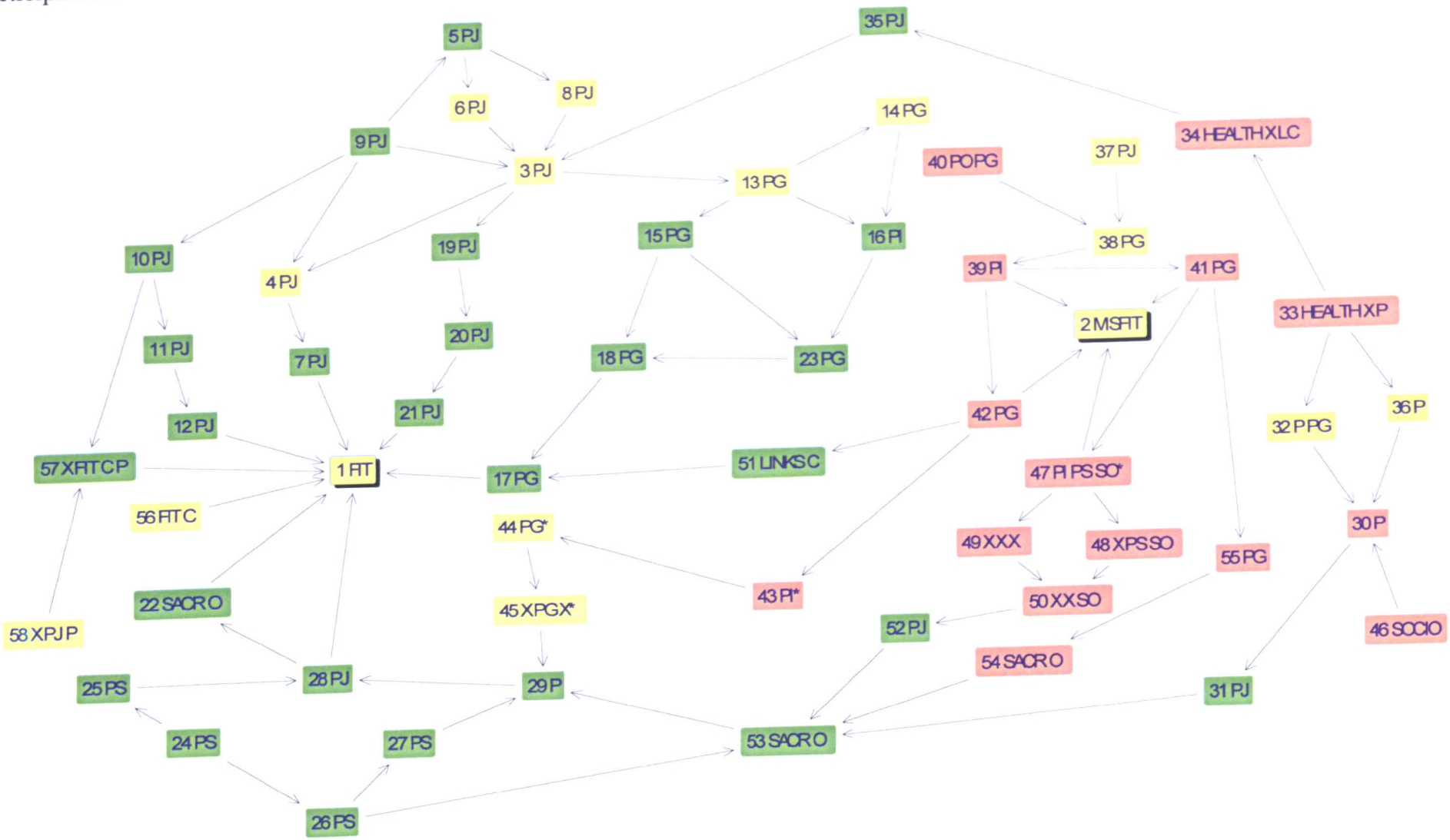

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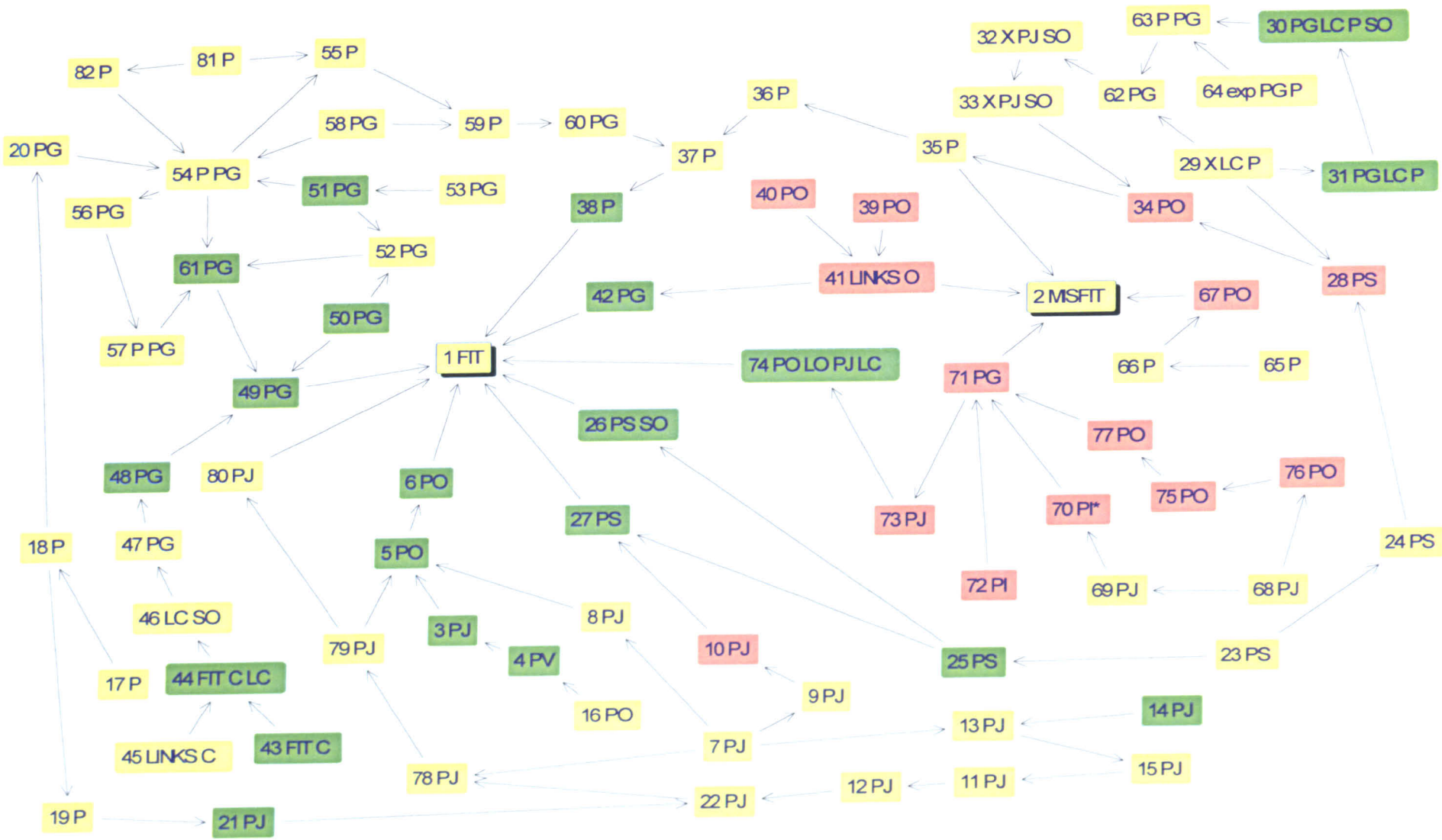

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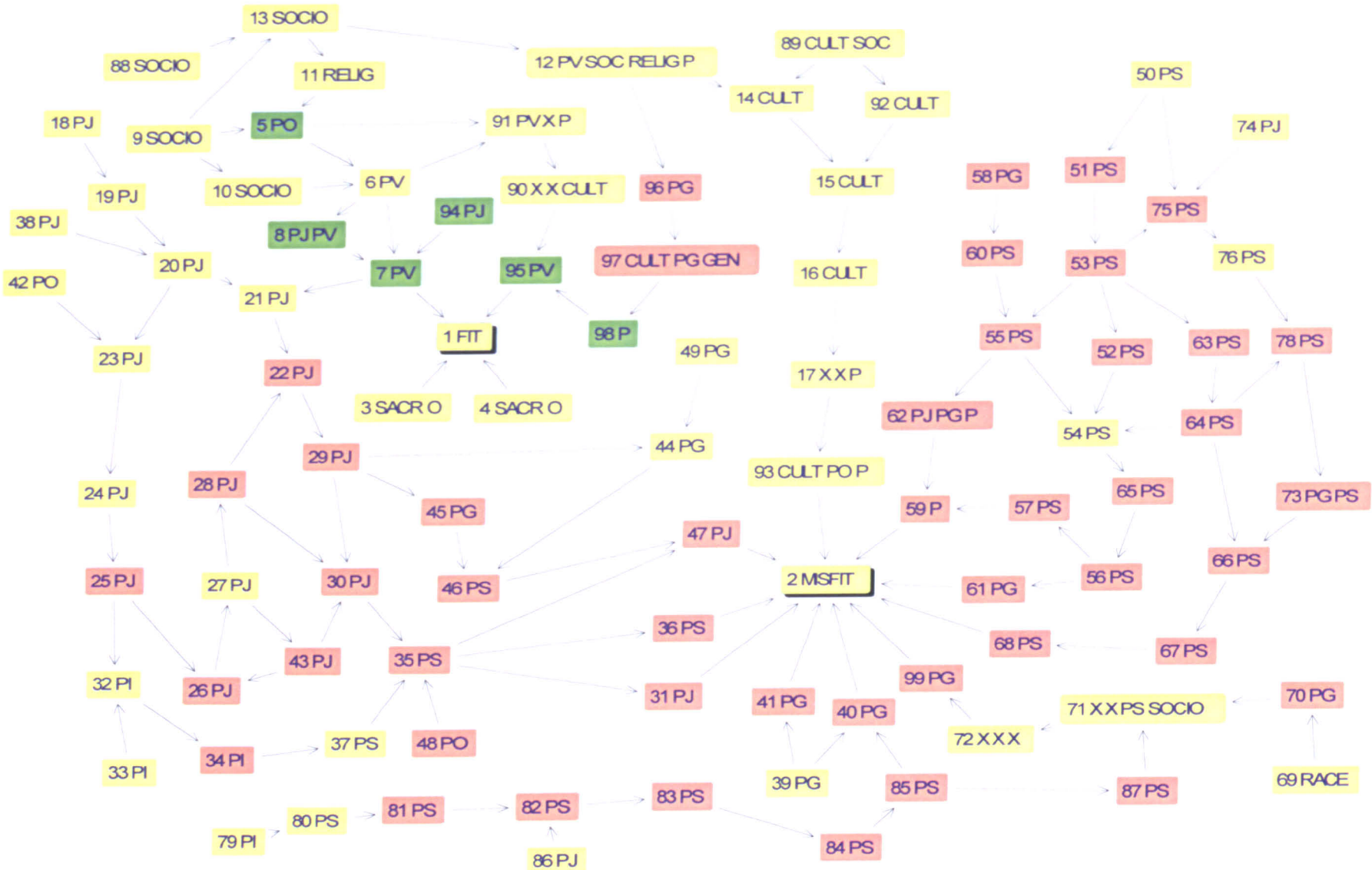

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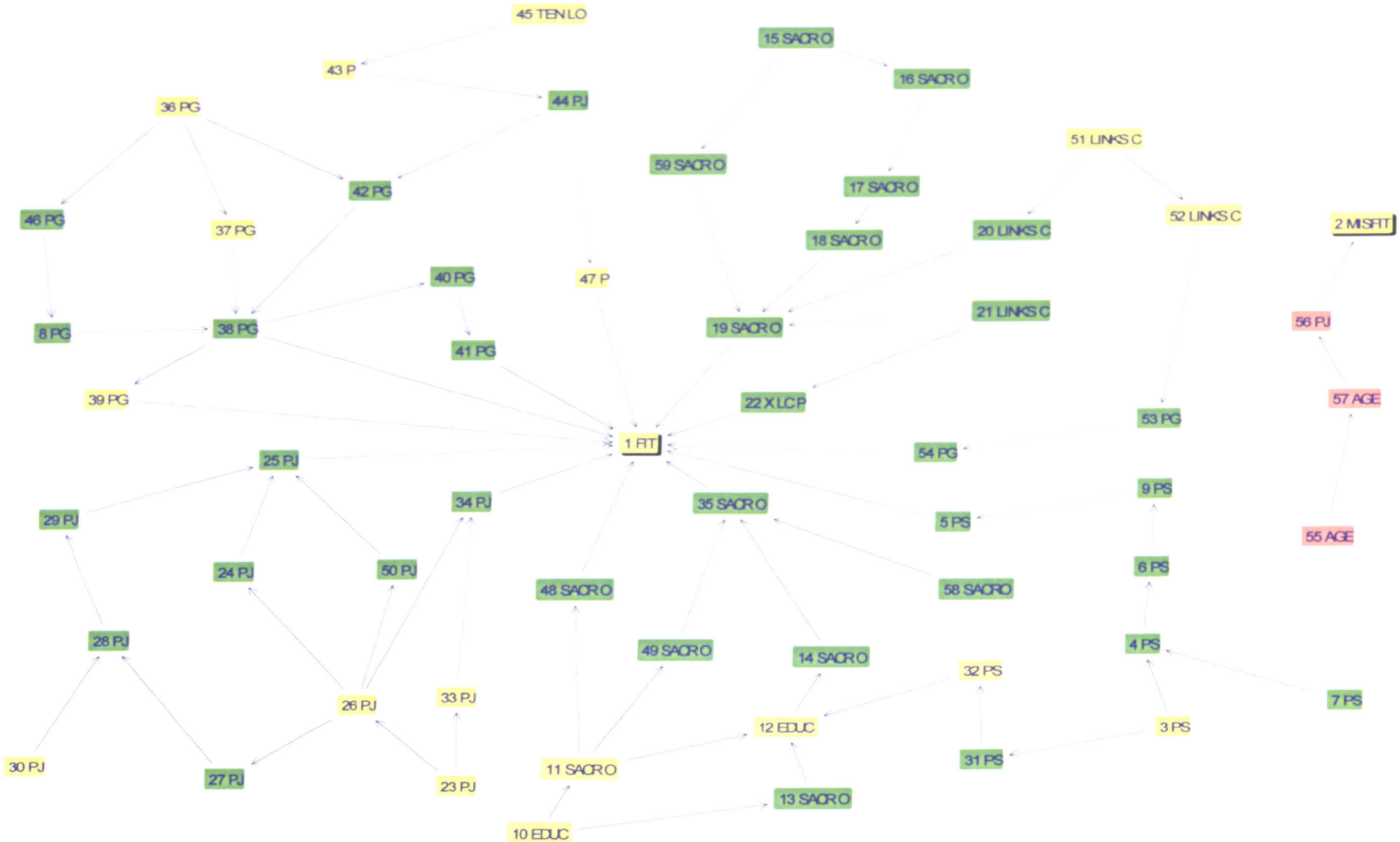
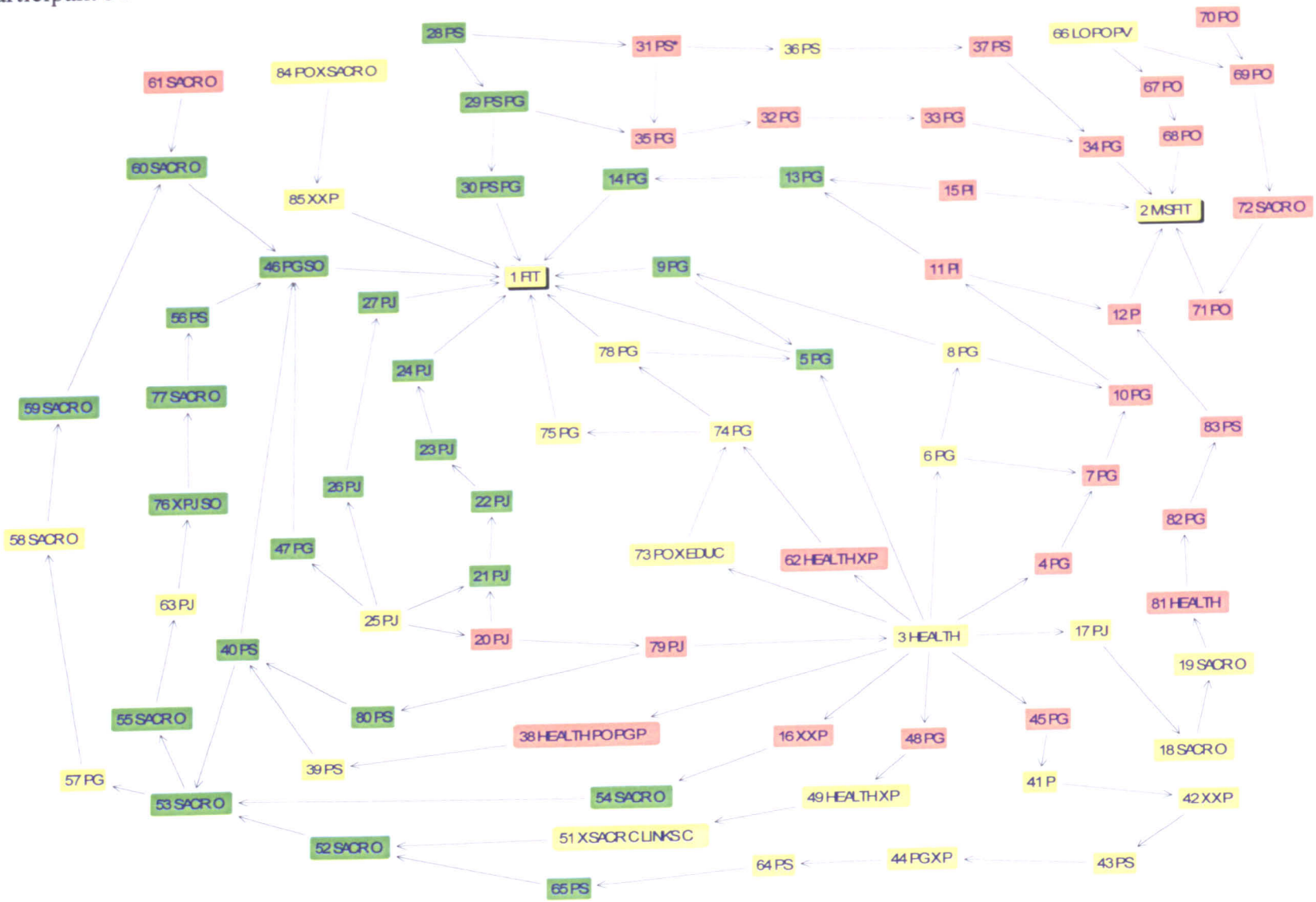
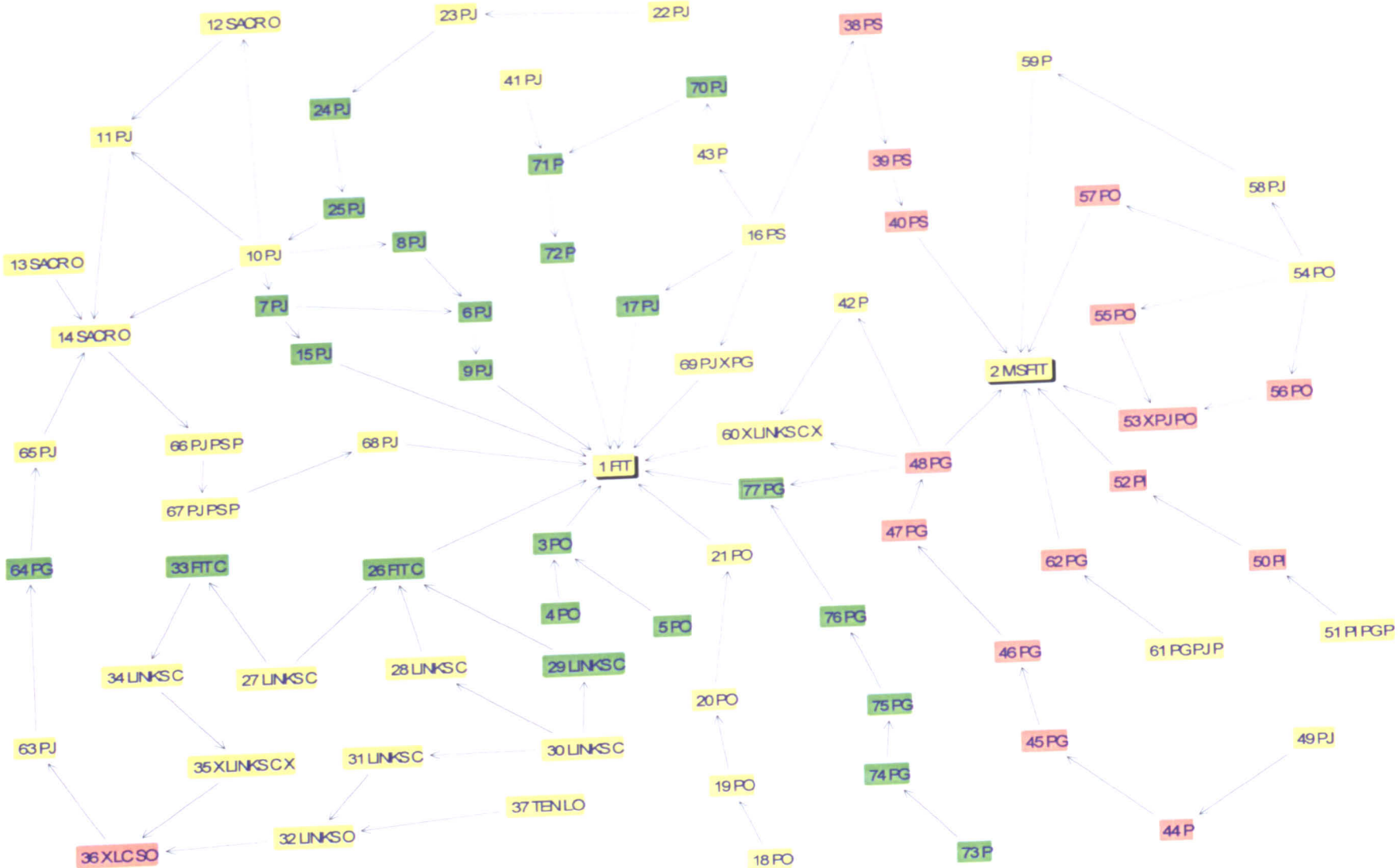


Participant 36



Participant 37



Participant 38